

CHILD STUDY

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HEADLINES

Discipline has always been the one favorite topic wherever parents meet to discuss their children's needs. The emergencies arising in a country at war kindle an even greater and more serious interest in this subject.



Various aspects of discipline at home, school, and in the community are discussed in this issue by: Lili E. Peller, director of the Field Laboratory at the Child Education Foundation; Edwin J. Lukas, associate director of the Society for the Prevention of Crime; Wilford M. Aikin, chairman of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association and author of "The Story of the Eight-Year Study," the first in a series of five volumes entitled "An Adventure in American Education"; and Algernon D. Black, leader of the Society for Ethical Culture, and in charge of the Work Camp Department of the International Student Service.



"Parents in Perplexity: The Story of a Counseling Service for Parents and Children," will be the topic of the fall issue of CHILD STUDY. It will give the interesting development of the Family Guidance and Consultation Service between two wars.



DISCIPLINE FOR TODAY

THE sudden need to meet the rigorous demands of war forces us to examine our fundamental ideas of discipline in a new light. Is our democratic concern for the individual too sentimental? Are our homes too indulgent and our children becoming too soft? Can we, in this emergency, recapture the old virtues by returning to the old methods?

WE OFTEN confuse ourselves by assuming that freedom is somehow incompatible with discipline, that the two are mutually exclusive. But it is not a case of either-or. Discipline, of course, is necessary in every kind of society. The child has to be protected against many dangers, including his own impulses. He cannot be allowed to grasp whatever catches his eye, or to eat whatever he grasps. The child learns very slowly to harmonize the outer demands and restraints with his inner feelings. As far as the child is concerned, he understands that a degree of conformity or cooperation is necessary. As far as the parents and teachers are concerned, however, it is very important to consider the methods they use to insure their goal.

WE SHOULD develop modes of discipline that will effectively prepare the individual for freedom—in a society of other individuals who are also free. This is possible, but difficult; for none of the traditional patterns of group living has consistently considered both aspects of human relationships. So often we oversimplify our task by making conformity and obedience ends in themselves. We make of obedience an ultimate virtue, instead of using our authority to get obedience as a means to help the child attain his individual adjustment and self-direction in a democratic society. In the last analysis the only reliable form of discipline is self-discipline, and this can only be acquired through the slow lessons of shared experiences that have their beginnings in family life.

THE EDITORS

The Roots of Discipline

By LILI E. PELLER

FOR most people discipline means to clamp the lid down on youthful exuberance and gaiety. We do need a new interpretation more in keeping with mental hygiene. A glance at the related words may help us to a fuller understanding of what discipline could mean. The other word in the English tongue stemming from the same root is *disciple*, meaning an ardent follower, a co-worker. Discipline in its true sense means the art of establishing conditions favorable for cooperation.

It is the job of adults to provide the social setting for the growth of discipline in young children. Trying to give a child the best setting we can, we are today well aware that he needs the company of children of his own age. He needs them not only to stimulate his own development but also to learn the intricate and subtle art of responding to social overtures and initiating them himself. The youngster who is too aggressive and too rough with his playmates, or the child too shy and too reticent, is equally unable to do so successfully.

When the teacher has developed a satisfactory discipline she will know how to set effective limits for the too-aggressive youngster and also how to bring the timid child out of his reserve. As long as the child who lacks self-assurance remains in his shell the discipline is weak—the stage is not set for drawing out the best work of which such a youngster is capable. On the other hand, those adults who suffer from inability to keep order in home or classroom are just as bad disciplinarians as those who fail to give encouragement to the withdrawn child. Discipline implies a subtle and flexible balance, avoiding the extremes of no control and overcontrol.

Discipline, of course, means more than just keeping order; it is a gradual growth of the child toward a desirable kind of self-control. The adult should understand that there are three main steps in the child's moral development, and that he needs the adult's help in each of these steps.

The very young child has no inner guide for his behavior. That we are all born without a conscience is as true for the future saint as for the future delinquent. The very little child will do whatever pleases

him; for instance, he will touch or cram into his mouth whatever he can grab. After a while, experience makes him wise and he is ready for the second step: he won't do this any more *if* mother is in the room and *if* she is looking. Education has won a minor victory. Then comes the third stage: he will not take the tempting-looking candy, even though no one is in the room to watch him.

This is the scheme by which education gradually gains one step after the other in the development of discipline. The child eventually accepts our dos and don'ts, although we are not at the spot to enforce them. When this has been achieved we can say that the child has an inner guide for his behavior, he has developed a conscience. Of course, we know that quite a few people never reach this stage. It is only external force which can keep them from doing wrong.

What has happened to the little child who sees the coveted candy and yet doesn't take it? How can we explain this kind of behavior, where he is alone in the room and yet does not take advantage of the situation? Is his desire gone? By no means.

In a psychological sense he is not alone—his mother is there with him. If there is a strong bond of affection between them, her commands, her dos and don'ts, have in this stage become part of him. They will follow him wherever he goes, and, even if they occasionally will not interfere with his doing the prohibited thing, they will interfere with his enjoyment of it.

It is important that we think of this change from outer to inner control as a part of normal growth. In innumerable ways children are constantly adapting themselves and actually shaping their inner selves according to the demands of the persons around them whom they love. The fact that he is bound to these people by ties of affection is very important. Otherwise discipline becomes just so many cold prohibitions. Only love makes it possible for a child literally to incorporate the parent's commands into his own self.

The child who remains at the more primitive level, where it is only the presence or absence of external

force which determines what he does, is preparing for a life of unhappiness. Of course, the average healthy child will display a contrary will of his own ever so often, but by and large he complies much more frequently than he displays stubbornness. The child who finds himself with adults for whom he has no affection grows up under a double disadvantage: he not only misses the security of love, of being accepted and wanted, but also, young and immature as he is, he realizes that his feelings of antagonism and dislike for the adults close to him are wrong, and thus he suffers from a deep sense of guilt. This feeling will be his greatest handicap in later life. It is a fortunate child who can wholeheartedly love those who take care of him.

The child must love his parents (or those who take their place), must have the ardent wish to be loved by them and in turn to become like them. To "like" somebody and to wish to be "like" him—the language indicates that the two are very close. The unloved person will be able to exert restraint over the child, but can never "educate" him because the child will not be anxious to copy him. Punishment is effective only to the degree that there is a bond of love, of transference between the child and the adult. It is the establishment of this bond, therefore, which comes first; obedience comes afterward.

One of the most helpful concepts educators can derive from psychoanalytical thinking is the idea that we are made up of a variety of impulses and interests which can be at conflict or fairly harmonized. To be a human being implies to harbor desires, hopes, and fears which may be in conflict with one another. In the drama we are always aware when the hero is going through a dramatic conflict, one part of his character warring against the other. Today we realize that struggles within the person take place in every one of us, and also in every child. The special constellation of these forces and the way the adults in a child's life aid and abet his tendency to harmonize these forces will determine whether a youngster develops into a constructive member of society, or a neurotic, or delinquent.

It is the function of the parent, or the parent substitute, of a young child to provide him with the standards for building his social self—his ego. This function is just as vital as the physical care of the child, but unfortunately it is much less tangible and obvious. In attempting to set these standards, parents often fall into two pitfalls: children are told every minute of the day what to do, and thus have no practice in making decisions of their own; or, if they are

confronted with consequences for wrong behavior which are so threatening that there is no real choice for them to make, these children will continue to depend completely on their parents and never develop any capacity for guiding themselves.

Or, on the other hand, there are parents who are unstable persons, unable to keep firm rules; or those who in their own childhood had suffered from too strict guidance and make up their minds that this is one mistake they will never make with their own offspring, and therefore err on the side of leniency. They bend over backward and abstain from setting any rules of conduct or any limits to impulses. This type of parent is particularly common in our so-called advanced circles. What they fail to see is that this overleniency leaves the children with nothing to go by. Weak parental control, as well as too strict control, can have destructive consequences, because it puts upon the children burdens they are unable to carry when deprived of the framework of standards for their behavior. Such children are likely to suffer from various defects of personality in later life.

GUIDANCE and authority are things children expect of their parents and without which they cannot get along. However, their most important function is to love the child and thus give him security and confidence; to make him feel accepted and wanted, and even needed, in his home. This is the foundation for true discipline, otherwise it remains external pressure. If a child misbehaves and is punished, that certainly will temporarily upset the harmony, but it never should give the feeling that the child himself has been rejected for his act. "Don't put those sticks into your face. I won't do it any more," said a three-year-old, who wanted to say, "Don't put on such a severe face."

Because the approval of the adults he loves is so important for any child, it is wise when he has been punished for the parent or teacher to "make up" quickly with him—not to let the punishment linger, or to come back with the reproach or criticism again and again. Let him feel that you are ready to be his friend again, and to let bygones be bygones. Especially for the child who has lost his parents—permanently or temporarily—and thus has lost part of his security, it is important to emphasize again and again that he is loved and accepted by those who are taking the parents' place.

Who doesn't know the unfortunate three- or four-year-old who has only one dominating goal—to please the adult? Whether at home or at kindergarten, he

cannot be himself and just play and have a good time as the other children do. At school, for example, he is under a tremendous inner urge to please the teacher. While the other children need an occasional dash of approval to round out their day, he needs buckets of adult applause. The child acts this way because he feels unloved and insecure in his home; but he has not yet given up, and he hopes to win his parents' love by the perfection of his behavior. While it is natural for a child to try to please his parents, it certainly should not be the ever-present thought dominating his school and home life.

Many parents feel that one of the best disciplinary devices is to allow young children to help in one way or another in the many little tasks recurring daily in the household. The child who feels he is useful will win prestige in his own eyes. As said before, the all-important feeling of security should come to little children primarily from being loved and accepted; nevertheless, the feeling "I, too, can help" will add to it. They certainly should be given a chance to help. At an unbelievably young age most children show a desire to be useful. They love to help. The child who has mastered walking enough to be able to concentrate on carrying something while walking will be indefatigable in carrying things, one by one, from one corner of the room to the other. I know of a boy of twenty months who puts away every plate and every cup his mother dries after breakfast.

It is quite important to plan the household and the child's day in such a way that opportunities arise where he can throw in his share of help. How often does he offer to help, only to be sent back to his toys! At this point in the discussion somebody usually throws in the old farm with all its chores and their moral value. Of course, he is right. But this nostalgia for the past days doesn't help us. Besides, it is surprising how many channels for the child's desire to help can be found even in city apartments. I have a suspicion that the longing for the "old farm" is just an easy excuse for failing to do the best with today's set-up.

The child at five or six lives mostly in the present moment, and his sense of time is very poor. He can anticipate a pleasant event, but he cannot plan. He is very proud of being considered big enough to be asked to help, and he can work hard and long if it's a special occasion, like spring cleaning, or starting new flower boxes, or moving things down from the attic. I find that all we have learned about children's short span of attention is wrong when the job is sufficiently interesting or gives the

child that sweet feeling of being badly needed.

But if he is given the same work day in and day out, then any young child will eventually find it hard and unpleasant. For a while, Peter or Susie may love to bring in the milk and the newspaper every morning, or to water the flower boxes, or to set the dinner table. Yet there comes a day when some other event will be much more important to them and they'll forget all about their work, and in some cases will be sullen when reminded of it. If at this point the parent starts a sermon on duties and responsibilities, and emphasizes how little it is that Peter has to do and how he could be through in five minutes if he just would not dawdle, then things go from bad to worse. There is complete misunderstanding. Children, like other primitives, do not mind work, not even hard, tiring, and dirty work. But it takes them a long time to grow up and to shoulder regularity.

In children's development many attitudes will change in time, whether we do much about them or not. It seems wise to concentrate our efforts on those aspects which do need our direct influence and not to waste our energy on the others. A child growing up in a family of responsible persons will develop his sense of duty somewhere in those "latency" years between six and twelve. There is not the slightest need to worry about this. Just as there is no reason for the false pride many parents display in thinking that they finally have succeeded in teaching their children the meaning of duty and regularity. It is, of course, the parents' own attitudes toward their duties which are of greatest bearing; their attempts to teach the child are irrelevant.

BETWEEN adults and small children there is an enormous gap in the understanding of moral issues. In this area the distance between the young one and the mature person is much larger than in the field of intellectual capacity. Yet while in our demands on children we are constantly aware of this intellectual difference, few of us are willing to admit the gap in the set of moral values.

I know a three-year-old who, like most children of his age, loves to wash things. One day he happened to do a good job of washing potatoes—now his mother has a bowl with mud-covered potatoes ready for him every morning, and prides herself on teaching him the meaning of a daily responsibility. While scrubbing the potatoes with all his might he was overheard saying to another child: "See, I'll get this water real filthy." His mother thought it very fine of Ronny to do this work, although it was such a messy job.

For Ronny, of course, who had to live up to very high standards of cleanliness in a small and elegant city apartment, it meant not cleaning potatoes but dirtying water. It was a welcome outlet to manipulate dirt. Not all misunderstandings between adults and children are of such inconsequential nature.

In one of the recent reports* from the Hampstead Nurseries in London, Anna Freud says:

"It is a common misunderstanding of children's nature which leads people to suppose that children will be saddened by the sight of destruction and aggression. . . . Children will play joyfully on bombed sites, around bomb craters, will play with blasted bits of furniture, and throw bricks from crumbled walls at each other. But it becomes impossible to educate them toward a repression of, or a reaction against, destruction while they do so. In their first years of life they fight against their own wishes to do away with people of whom they are jealous, who disturb or disappoint them, or who offend their childish feelings in some other way. It must be very difficult for them to accomplish this task of fighting their own death wishes, when at the same time people are killed and hurt every day around them."

IN OUR society the well-adjusted adult must be stable in his performance. A person of excellent abilities without regular work habits will not get anywhere. Because this evenness of output is of paramount importance for the brain worker in our society, parents try to impose this pattern too early on the child, forgetting the harm that is done when children are spurred into something for which they are not yet ready. With the same reasoning we could say that an infant should live on beefsteak, as this is the kind of fare he'll have to eat as a grownup.

A quite young child can be alert to the satisfaction coming from a job well done; he deeply appreciates having been useful. He loves to join the adult who is working, in the kitchen or in the garden; he needs this companionship, this sharing of work. But the job assigned to children should never be so easy as to present no challenge at all. The child is glad to work "hard" because he feels that in this way he proceeds on the road toward grownupness. But if it's "baby stuff" that we ask from him, he misses this satisfaction. The adult is able to carry on a dull and mechanical job because he is motivated by the result. The child lives in the present moment; while doing his share he needs to feel how strong, how smart, how big he is.

* One of the publications of the American Foster Parents' Plan for War Children, Inc.

If your five-year-old helps to set the dinner table, he should also be the one who lights the candles, or rings the gong, or brings in some favorite dish. Finding tasks interesting to the child may be hard for the grownup, but if the work assigned to him is so simple that he feels it to be beneath him, then he cannot develop an eager, positive attitude toward useful tasks. Yet, to develop this attitude toward work in the early years is extremely important. The child who has often and fully experienced the sweet satisfaction of being needed and of enjoying a job which was hard, but brought recognition for his accomplishments, is better prepared for his school years than the one who already thinks of work only as something "you have to do."

Children are very sensitive to the "realness" of a situation. If there are servants in the house the child will often resent doing for himself something that the servant has been doing so far for him and continues to do for other members of the household. I agree with parents that children should not react this way, but the fact remains that practically all of them do. Parents who want their children to be self-reliant have no choice but to become players in the game themselves. As educators we will be as good as we are as human beings. Things we preach but do not live ourselves will be ineffective or even bad education.

Too often parents have been told that if they never behave except in a model way in the presence of their children, then everything will work out fine. If this were true, then parents who are quite irresponsible in their human relationships and incompetent in facing life, but who are very skillful in pretending, would make wonderful parents. I can hardly think of a piece of more pernicious advice. In almost any other job we may successfully put up a front and withdraw our real self behind it. But not in dealing with children. The moral education we can give to our child will be commensurate with our sincerity. Besides, children always see through our deception.

The little child is driven by his primitive desires, on one hand, and by his wish to win our affection and to become grown up, on the other. If he is ever to resolve this conflict, it is important for him to have not only love but respect for the adults close to him. He wants us to be his ally in this fight. He needs our help, and to feel very sure of our love. He needs parents who set standards, and who sincerely represent these standards. It is through such relationships with people of integrity that children become truly disciplined. Nothing else will take the place.

School Discipline for Democracy

By WILFORD M. AIKIN

THE trouble is we don't know what we want. As parents and teachers we get ourselves tied up into all kinds of knots because we haven't made up our minds about discipline. Today we want our sons and daughters to do what they are told; tomorrow we want them to think and decide for themselves. Today we want them to beat everybody else in their studies; tomorrow we want them to show fine spirit and cooperation. Today we want them to be hard and determined; tomorrow we want them to be kind and generous in all their relationships. We don't get what we want because we don't know what we want. We have failed to establish for ourselves and for our children a consistent pattern of characteristics and behavior appropriate to the kind of life in which we say we believe.

We have committed ourselves and our children to democracy as a way of life. That way of life gives us our clue to the disciplines which we need. Those disciplines are fundamentally different in many respects from those demanded in a totalitarian state. The dictators say to their people, "Accept, obey, and fight." Unquestioning acceptance, blind obedience, aggressive belligerency are the disciplines essential to dictatorships. They are not consistent with the American way of life.

To be happy and effective as a citizen of a democracy the individual needs the kind of disciplines which are not easy to achieve. They cannot be imposed; they must be developed by the individual himself. Home and school must help him; but to do so parents, teachers, and youth must be clear as to what discipline in a democracy means.

Do we really mean it when we say:

We believe in the common man. We believe that each normal child has potentialities for intelligent living and participation in the common life.

We believe in a society which promotes a sense of dignity and worth in each individual and a recognition of the dignity and worth of others.

We believe in a social organization which permits and encourages the fullest possible measure of participation by each individual in the common life, and a share in determining what that life should be and in meeting its responsibilities.

We believe that economic life should be organized

so that every person may have full opportunity to be well fed, housed, and clothed.

We believe that the mind and spirit of man should be free, that there should be no shackles upon intelligence or spirit, that all aspects of life, even the democratic ideal itself, shall be open to honest inquiry, discussion and criticism.

If we are honest in applying these democratic principles to our everyday life, we shall seek for ourselves and for our children such disciplines as these: clear understanding of democracy as our way of life; whole-hearted and intelligent devotion to democratic ideals; social sensitivity and responsibility; habitual cooperation for the common welfare; tolerance; respect for and active guardianship of civil liberties, especially of minorities; critical-mindedness; respect for leadership and authority cooperatively established; self-direction in keeping with the common good. The kind of life in which we as a people believe can be achieved only if each individual possesses such qualities of mind and character. Our fervent hope that the terrible sacrifices now being made will lead in the future to a better life is doomed to tragic disappointment unless we develop in ourselves and our children the disciplines consistent with the democratic concept of life.

How may this be done? The surest way to attain the purposes we must achieve is to make of our homes and schools places of truly democratic living. From infancy to adulthood in the home, from the kindergarten to graduation in the school, there should be the kind of constant daily living which promotes in each individual a sense of his own dignity, respect for the worth of others, cooperative solution of problems for the common good, and the exercise of free intelligence.

Each home and each school is made up of members who are adults and those who have, not yet reached adulthood. Therein lies the chief difficulty in democratic living. Assuming that those who have reached adulthood have developed the essential disciplines, to them falls the responsibility of leading those who are yet immature, as rapidly as their maturing intelligence permits, into full sharing of the common life of home and school. This means, of course, sharing not only in the decisions that are made but

also in the responsibilities that are involved. In a brief article like this it is best to indicate the changes this demands in the school, particularly in the high school.

In the truly democratic high school, for example:

1. The principal becomes an educational leader instead of a benevolent autocrat.
2. Teachers become helpers of youth instead of teachers of subjects narrowly conceived.
3. Mass education on the factory plan gives way to full knowledge of each individual and adaptation of his work to his abilities, concerns, and probable future.
4. Students become responsible participants instead of indifferent doers of assigned tasks; they become askers as well as answerers of questions. Their intelligence and purposes are enlisted in their own education.
5. Inert subject matter gives way to the common, recurring concerns of youth which demand a content that is alive and pertinent to their problems.
6. Instead of being isolated within the walls of its building, the school draws close to its community. It gives more and more time to exploration of the physical and human resources of the places in which the students live. What the community does and how its functions are subjects of direct, first-hand study. Equally important, ways are found by which home and school collaborate effectively for the achievement of common purposes.
7. In place of the present disjointed, haphazard, confused program of studies, the school develops unity and continuity with one clear major purpose: to bring to every young American his great heritage of freedom, to develop understanding of the kind of life we seek, and to inspire devotion to human welfare.

The way of life to which we are committed is not easy. It demands of the individual citizen effective use of his intelligence and self-denial for the common good. No one is fully qualified for citizenship in a democracy until he has established the habit of fulfilling the responsibilities he has voluntarily undertaken—of seeing the job through to completion, no matter how tough it may be. Can these and the

other disciplines essential to democracy be developed through the kind of secondary education indicated above? The answer is "Yes."

The evidence upon which this answer is based is furnished by the work of the Commission on the Relation of School and College* of the Progressive Education Association. Thirty secondary schools set free from specific college prescriptions of subjects and units sought to develop the disciplines appropriate to the democratic ideal. The results of their work were carefully studied in the lives of their students who went to college. Each student was matched with another (in the same college) who had equal scholastic abilities, similar home and community background, but who had followed the traditional pattern of college preparation. Altogether, 1,475 matched pairs of students were studied for four consecutive years. The investigation† as reported by the college faculty members who made the study reveals that the graduates of the Thirty Schools:

1. Earned a slightly higher total grade average.
2. Received slightly more academic honors in each year.
3. Were more often judged to possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive.
4. Were more often judged to be precise, systematic, and objective in their thinking.
5. Were more often judged to have developed clear or well-formulated ideas concerning the meaning of education—especially in the first two years in college.
6. More often demonstrated a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations.
7. Had about the same problems of adjustment as the comparison group, but approached their solution with greater effectiveness.
8. Earned in each college year a higher percentage of non-academic honors (officership in organizations, election to managerial societies, leading rôles in dramatic and musical presentations).
9. Had a somewhat better orientation toward the choice of a vocation.

* Official report, entitled *Adventure in American Education*, is now being published in five volumes by Harper & Brothers, New York. For a complete, concise account of the Commission's work, see Volume I, "The Story of the Eight-Year Study," by Wilford M. Aikin (reviewed in this issue).

† For complete account, see Commission's report, Volume IV, "Did They Succeed in College?" which will be available from Harper & Brothers in June, 1942.

(Continued on page 126)

Youth and Citizenship Responsibility

By ALGERNON D. BLACK

IN OUR effort to meet the power of fascist aggression we have become aware of our own weakness, the disunity and selfishness and confusion which make military and economic mobilization and morale difficult. We have become concerned over our inability to subordinate personal purposes to the defense of the common life, and are facing the fact that unless we can work out an effective democratic discipline we shall be unable to defend our freedom. We shall either be defeated on the international fronts, or we shall be defeated at home by the fact that we are forced to become like the dictatorships we are fighting against.

In ordinary times we have had too little of responsible disciplined citizenship. Now in time of trouble we see that there are dangers from which nothing can save the people but themselves. In air raids no one can possibly perform the necessary tasks of turning out the lights, putting out incendiaries, digging out victims, administering first aid, etc., except the people themselves. If they do not want to do these things no one can possibly enforce these activities on the people from the outside. It is the people who must undertake the responsibility and carry it through. If the democracies had not permitted the degeneration of freedom into inactive and irresponsible citizenship, the flags of freedom might still be flying over nations now enslaved.

A people cannot have freedom unless it can and will discipline itself. Every form of society requires disciplines, but in a democratic society the discipline requires special characteristics of intelligence, personal responsibility and unity of purpose. In dictatorships discipline may be an external matter, a stern voice giving orders, men taking orders with unquestioning obedience, the will of the ruler made effective through force. This is also the method of authoritarianism in home and school in matters of child training. On the other hand, the discipline of free men is from within; their behavior is motivated through inner impulse and desire, through their own conscious voluntary action with regard to the needs and rights of their neighbors. In the homes and schools of a democracy, then, the training should minimize the amount of externally imposed conduct and develop to the utmost the inner springs of action, the kind of responsible self-disciplined citi-

zenship which will make democratic living possible.

We have hoped that our homes and schools and community organizations would develop in our young people the habits of democratic discipline. But it is evident that a great part of our youth is trained either in the patterns of ruler and ruled, master and servant, or in the other extreme of freedom in excess and with irresponsibility. All too few of the people, whether young or old, have any idea of the meaning and problem of freedom. They fail to see that freedom is not an end; that it is a means to a higher end and has value in terms of other ends. Freedom for what? This is a question of first magnitude for the United Nations and, in particular, the United States. Most young people in our democracy have no clear sense that freedom is never an absolute and unlimited right. Freedom must always be exercised in a special situation and be modified in terms of that situation and the purposes it is to serve. The rights of others, the welfare of all, yes, security and equality and solidarity are the ends in terms of which the citizens of democracy must qualify their freedom.

The development of worthy purposes and values becomes then a first order of business for all agencies responsible for education. In his love of music, for example, the child will practice, in his love of art and literature the child will do creative work, in his hobbies the child will follow science and many other interests with a devotion which destroys the artificial line between work and play. With a paper to write, a concert to give, a drama to produce, a child is disciplined by his interests and purposes. Not by beatings and nagging and the constant pressure of punishment and reward; but by the inner drive and purpose the young person becomes self-disciplined. Just as when a young man's fancy turns to love, neither parent nor teacher need press the matter of neatness or teeth or hairbrush; he is meticulous to a fault because he has a clear motivation. The best disciplines are imposed by the individual himself in terms of purposes which are real for him. Here action most closely corresponds to inner desire. There is no split of personality, no inner turmoil of self at war with the pressures of outer conformities.

The next best discipline to the one imposed by his own purposes is that of one's contemporaries. To bully less, to control temper, to be truthful through

the influence of one's friends is far better than to continue in unbridled expression without any limiting reaction from the outside world of realities. The individual develops a healthy tendency to adjust to and also to stand firm against his contemporaries. In the process he develops some of the characteristics of a disciplined person as he comes up against the realities he must respect in the egos and prejudices of his friends. This is something he cannot cry down as easily as the impositions of parents, teachers and other adults who seem to have some axe to grind.

But there are moments when the impositions of discipline by adults is appropriate. The safeguarding of the school, for example, from the danger of fire *before the fire comes* is the responsibility of adults. It grows out of the experience of adults and the qualities of perspective and authority and responsibility which they have and which children cannot be expected to have. Thus the fire-drill bell calls forth action in which freedom is modified in terms of the needs of the situation. Freedom of speech must be curtailed, rigid system and control are essential throughout. Personal inclinations and preference become meaningless and dangerous to the group and to the individual himself. In the same way freedoms must be modified and people ready to act in disciplined ways in any emergency. Children and youth must come to recognize the situations which call for special discipline. In the present war crisis millions of young Americans are finding a new perspective on the meaning of their freedoms.

The training in freedom and discipline must be carried out particularly in freedom of speech and press. Early in life the young must learn some of the implications of the exercise of these freedoms. For the misuse or abuse of these freedoms can do great harm to others and destroy those social conditions which are necessary to the survival of freedom itself. The abuse of freedom begets the hatred of freedom. It creates the insecurity which makes for distrust and hostility and weakens the basis of the democratic life. The gossip which destroys reputations, the talk which foment distrust and intolerance and hate, the criticism which demoralizes and breaks a peoples' faith in themselves and in the possibility of freedom, all these are abuses which bring about the destruction of freedom. A people fit for democracy will use these freedoms of speech and press well, with regard for their effects on human personality and human relations.

In all such matters of learning to achieve free-

dom through discipline, young people naturally imitate their parents' *actions* far more than their parents' *teachings*. Example and sincerity in devotion to "first things"—these become extremely important as educational influences. Here, too, is involved the relation of different standards in the same community. All too often the parents who consider themselves modern or progressive feel that they must not "interfere." So they take on a passive rôle, permitting their young ones to adopt the freedoms without responsibility and without standards. Their children continue to be influenced, but are conditioned as individuals and citizens by the standards of other parents and by the influences of the streets, dance halls, bars, and any places where the young gather. Certainly there are points at which parents and teachers and social workers and group leaders have not only the right but the duty to stand for certain standards and values. All too many adults abdicate their duties at this point because of a false notion of progressive and modern methods. With it they deny the young the benefit of their experience and wisdom, and give the impression that control of self does not matter. The judgment and sense of values of the adult is essential to the security and guidance of the young.

IT IS important for the adolescent in his search for his purposes and goals, in his anxiety to resolve some of the contradictions and conflicts of his life, that he finds sympathetic adults. It may be a teacher or camp counselor or uncle or aunt who seems to understand, who can help him make the decisions for himself, and bring him to a clearer understanding so that he may learn to discipline himself.

It is important, also, that young people find some projects in clubs or camps or organizations through which they can work out certain experiences and have opportunities for testing themselves and their new powers to use and achieve happiness through freedom.

To this end, various work projects and work camps have been organized in recent years in America. Work camps offer a real training in democratic discipline, a real opportunity for the growing individual to find the meaning of freedom through social living and work and study and self-government and play. They provide an educational experience in which freedom and discipline are treated as central problems. In no youth projects are these problems more consciously dealt with than in the work camps for democracy.

The first step is the deliberate mixing of youth of differing backgrounds, religious, racial and economic,

(Continued on page 126)

Delinquency and the War

By EDWIN J. LUKAS

"WILL juvenile delinquency and adolescent crime increase during World War II?" This is the question frequently asked of criminologists today. Instead, the query should be: "At what point will the increase of juvenile delinquency and adolescent crime exceed expectations?"

It would be presumptuous to offer more—in the brief space these pages permit—than an ordering of the previously enunciated theories on the subject, at the same time avoiding an oversimplification of the problems inherent in a war for which we now know we were unprepared. Some outstanding students in the field of crime prevention—Herman Mannheim, Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, among others—have already given expression to most of what can be said at this time. None of them claim prescience; their opinions are based upon studies of the causative factors in anti-social behavior generally, plus an evaluation of the data that have come out of countries already engaged in this war.

In the course of summarizing their expressions, preliminary to what may be a blueprint of preventive counteraction, let it be remembered that we are not now discussing some newly discovered or purely local phenomenon, or a creature born of the marriage of man to the concept and mechanics of modern warfare. During the Punic and Napoleonic Wars, for example, there existed no system of classified crime statistics; but because war inevitably perverts many people into an intensity of cruelty that just as inevitably filters through to youth, it may be safely assumed that increased criminality in civilians of all ages, as by-products of participation in armed conflict, would be discoverable during these earlier wars to an extent not far different from that of the twentieth century. Wars have always been degrading episodes—for nations and their inhabitants. Eighteenth century Porteus gave strong hint of the moral deterioration of a population during war when he wrote:

"One murder made a villain,
Millions a hero,
Princes were privileged to kill,
And numbers sanctified the crime."

Adults consecrated to offensive warfare revive the ancient impulses of aggressiveness and acquisitiveness, which Freud cautioned us to believe govern our

instinctual lives at infancy. Civilization had previously dedicated itself to the sublimation of these impulses, which now become the vices governing our *group* behavior in war. This occurs under the ægis, if you please, of a titanic struggle among the democracies to preserve the cardinal virtues for present and future generations. Regarded as an abnormal and dangerous impulse in times of peace, a kind of "sanctification" of group aggression becomes socially acceptable for the duration of the war. Sentiments such as "Do unto others as you would have others do unto you" are, for many, suspended for the duration. They become displaced by slogans, posters, and other public appeals urging callous indifference to the welfare and life of the enemy, on the field or in his home. Taking no position, for these purposes, on the highly controversial question as to whether "hatred" is a necessary ingredient of a successful war effort, it appears to be certain that it will soon dominate the attitude of a large section of our adult population, and relatively few youthful witnesses to this moral metamorphosis can fail to be baffled by the transformation of their older exemplars from respectability and conformity to advocacy of violence and death to unseen enemies.

If this is descriptive of the cycle of behavior that we must cynically, yet necessarily, tolerate in mature adults participating in a successful war effort, what manner of moral and mental acrobatics have we the right to expect of their children? In addition to the other existing causes of anti-social behavior, what may we expect of the impressionable and highly susceptible, the adventurous, the opportunistic, the psychopathic, and of those in whom abiding behavior patterns have not yet been firmly fixed?

One might profitably examine the experience of countries whose histories include participation in modern war—all-out, blitz, devastatingly ruthless. It is much too early for more than the first chapter to be written, but enough is known of England's juvenile and adolescent offender experiences in World War II, about blackouts, shelter life, changes in work conditions, and shifts in populations, to assist in forecasting the future of the impact of war upon American youth. A characteristic month during the bombing of London (October 1940) resulted in the apprehension of 1,662 looters, of whom 14 per cent were

schoolboys and 45 per cent were under 21 years. The British Home Office reports that court appearances of children for indictable offenses increased from a level of 27,000 in 1936 to 30,000 in 1939 and 42,000 in 1940. These are absolute figures, in which some of the variations may be attributable to factors—present also in peacetime—that always cause fluctuations in the incidence of juvenile delinquency. But the abnormal disparities point unmistakably to a grave increase in the *ratio* of offenses. Offenses among children under 14 during the first four months saw a rise of 62 per cent over a corresponding period in the previous year. The younger adolescents (14 to 17 years) produced a 41 per cent increase for the first four months of 1940, while the older group (17 to 21)—many of whom by that time had already enlisted in the British Army and Navy—contributed a 16 per cent increase. Scotland's wartime statistics tell us of an increase in 1941 of 52 per cent in juvenile delinquency. More recent newspaper reports indicate a general 40 per cent increase, in 1941, of all juvenile and adolescent crime in Great Britain.

During World War I, the increase of juvenile and adolescent offenses in England, even as now, was accompanied by a tendency toward *decrease* in adult crime, partially explainable by the absorption of a large percentage of adults in the business of war. Moreover, police are preoccupied with other tasks—sabotage, espionage, etc., and are not in position to enforce criminal laws among the civilian population with the same vigilance as in less chaotic times. Also, one observes an understandable disinclination on the part of the public to prosecute a participant in the national war effort, one who has been elevated by public opinion from obscure circumstances to the status of patriot. This results in one of war's many paradoxes: a special benignity derived from mass chauvinism that would probably forgive an assault by one of McArthur's men upon a mere civilian, while roundly condemning and severely punishing it were it the other way round. This attitude of the courts and the public toward the soldier in time of war is aptly compared by the *Manchester Guardian* with the indulgences granted to Crusaders by the Church.

America's experiences in World War I also contribute to the predictability of the period 1942-(?). In Chicago, during the months shortly following America's entry into war in April, 1917, the number of petitions filed against delinquent children in the Juvenile Court of Cook County was 54 per cent greater than in the same period of 1916. Children's Court appearances in New York City were almost 18 per

cent higher in 1917 than in the previous year. Judges and probation officers of twenty of the largest cities in the United States reported to the Federal Children's Bureau in 1918 an alarming increase in juvenile delinquency.

It would be illuminating to have reliable pre-war statistics with which to contrast the material we will eventually be in a position to evaluate concerning America's wartime delinquency and adolescent crime. However, without infinitely more accurate information than is now available, it is impossible to chart definitely the trend of juvenile delinquency and youthful crime over the country for the period just prior to our entrance into this war.

In the first place, the incidence of offenses normally varies in different geographical localities, for a variety of reasons not relevant here. Moreover, various estimates, based erroneously on absolute figures (totals), rather than upon ratios (the totals of various age groups against their incidence in the population), have produced misleading and generally confusing data on the question. In a number of localities statistics fortunately are maintained in a form susceptible of evaluation; and while it would produce a fallacious result to interpret those figures as indicating a national trend, it is not improper to consider them as *cross-sectional* of a tendency toward *decrease* in many of the key cities over the country. Certainly, in New York, while Negro delinquency rose 23 per cent in 1941 over 1940, the ratio of delinquency and adolescent crime as a whole had more or less constantly decreased from 1937 to the end of 1941. This heartening fact, though by no means reassuring on the prognosis for 1942 and after, furnishes us with one of the few controls presently available with which to contrast our later research into wartime offenses.

We would be justified in dating our wartime youth behavior experiences from a time before Pearl Harbor (because this country had earlier begun to place itself on a war footing), but it is, of course, still too early to measure statistically the effects of this war upon children and adolescents in this country. In the first three months of 1942, Children's Court appearances in New York City increased 10.3 per cent over a corresponding period in 1941. In but one phase of the whole gamut of criminality—the theft of autos and tires, toward which, in many large cities, including New York, youths between the ages of 16 and 18 years normally contribute at least one-third of the total offenders—the inauguration of governmental rationing produced a sharp increase. Scarcity rendered these normally attractive items still more attractive to

the boy who itches for a joy ride or for a few dollars for his own free spending. In a survey recently conducted by the Society for the Prevention of Crime among the police departments of ten large key cities over the country, eight reported a marked rise in auto thefts during January, 1942, over the corresponding month in 1941. Though not significant as proof that juvenile and adolescent criminality are destined to continue to increase, these few signs offer examples of a discernible tendency. In conjunction with everything else that is known concerning our own previous and England's present experience, they suggest what is in store for us during World War II.

What, then, are the underlying causes of wartime delinquency? And, moreover, what are we to do about it—indeed, what *must* we do?

First, the underlying causes. It has already been abundantly demonstrated, for all but those who just will not ever concede the fact, that the histories of many youthful offenders disclose clues indicating dominant compulsive motivations for their anti-social activities. They overtly manifest the classic symptoms of deep-seated neuroses, despite the presence of conditions considered favorable for the normal development and maturation of youth. While these symptoms may be associated with the other contributing causes seen in cases of delinquency and youthful criminality—dire poverty, mental deficiency, culture conflicts, etc.—psychological factors are frequently involved in the establishment of these conditions.

There are some hitherto seemingly stable youngsters, as well as the sensitive and the suggestible, for whom there may be no previous history of truancy or of tendency toward delinquency, who nevertheless exhibit acute signs of anxiety and hostility during war. They imitatively adopt adult patterns without the advantage of the semblance of inhibition the adult possesses; and they translate these patterns into overt, anti-social behavior. In the numerous upheavals of war, the home and school and community become centers of distortions of the accepted standards of behavior, and these are reflected in the recklessness and devilry in which youths engage when goaded by what seems to them to be an abandonment of those standards. Total war in the German and Japanese manner may also produce a species of boldness in youngsters in blue jeans no less than in young men in uniform. Fear has bred many heroes—and many criminals. Lurid tales emerging from a swiftly moving, mechanized war have their exciting effect upon the same child who might be influenced to surrender his inhibitions by the glorification of the gang-

ster in some motion picture or newspaper versions of gang crime. Tensions are created that entail problems doubly difficult to solve because of the changes in conditions (in home, school, and community life) under which we will be expected to live while the war lasts. For some it may be assumed that a dangerous restlessness will ensue, and psychiatric techniques are important in dealing with this, one of the principal sources of youth crime. Orthodox methods have failed to achieve the rehabilitation of this type of offender. A realization of this is responsible for the increased agitation for more and more individualization in the treatment of youthful offenders.

IN SPITE of the fact that many have rejected the idea that any but social and economic forces contribute to fluctuations in human behavior (some still believe sheer "cussedness" is the cause), it is bound to constitute a discovery of far-reaching import, when research into the causations of wartime delinquency and criminality is completed, for material to be gathered which will point irrefutably to the dominant psychological causation of many offenses committed in the midst of a war fever.

But it would be grossly misrepresentative to stress the psychological causes to the exclusion of other causes, doubtless more numerous, for increased wartime delinquency and crime. It is unlikely, from what little is really known, that in England the youthful burglars, looters, and thieves are mainly psychopathic, or nearly so. To the extent to which conditions in England are comparable to conditions in this country, either at the present or likely to occur in the future, and to the extent to which conditions peculiarly indigenous to America may contribute to delinquency, we ought to explore these other causes, and use the findings guardedly.

The other causes may be summarized without extended amplification, for the causal connection between behavior and these situations is self-evident: (a) *the removal or absence, daily, or for protracted periods, of the disciplining force in the family—a parent or older sibling.* The broken home of peacetime, brought about through divorce or separation, has its war counterpart in homes where one or more members of the family are engaged in the armed services or war industries. It may seem trite to comment again that this lack of supervision is destined to leave its mark upon children and adolescents.

(b) *Shift in environment.* This may be brought about through evacuation, or by employment of the principal bread-winners in new localities. The pre-

ponderance of delinquency among English children under 14 years would seem to corroborate our misgivings concerning the same age group in this country, for the same cause. Mobility of this kind, unpredicted and unplanned, adversely affects individual responsibility to neighborhood opinion and control over the conduct of individuals.

(c) *Diminished recreational facilities for youths, accompanied by an increase in leisure time.* In England many schools, clubs, and established recreation centers have been disrupted, and the inability to absorb leisure time, in the home or elsewhere, has had its repercussions in the form of unspent energy and restlessness, for which no substitutive outlet has been quickly provided. Though England has been aware of the importance of recreation to sustain the morale of her children, about 60 per cent of the children do not belong to organized clubs. In New York City, at a time when services of this character are needed most, the 1942-43 budget actually eliminates many social service and recreational facilities.

(d) *Increased opportunity for and temptations toward theft, provided by blackouts.* Where anti-social tendencies already exist in youths, a new setting is offered in which detention (a common deterrent) is made particularly difficult. A kind of official impunity blankets the offenders.

(e) *High wages for the older adolescent engaged in war industries.* Youths are unprepared for sudden, comparative riches; they are not accustomed to handle "war wages" constructively, and in England this age group is engaging in an orgy of self-indulgence. Drunkenness and sex offenses are characteristic of the charges against them, and they mingle with a new crop of companions similarly situated, equally irresponsible.

It would be also misrepresentative of conditions abroad, and already discernible here, to suggest that the crop of wartime offenders are, or will be, exclusively male. The latter will, as always, preponderate; but, during the stress of war no less than in the rough and tumble of the competitive régime of relatively peaceful times, the female is as exposed as the male to the myriad of demoralizing influences that stalk the land. Female delinquency in England increased from 1.7 per cent in 1913 to 12 per cent in 1918; and this war's record, so far, keeps pace with its predecessor. In the State of New York the number of young girls placed on probation began to increase markedly at about the time we entered World War I. From the courts and social agencies having contact with young women all over the country during the

brief interval since our World War II conscript army was organized, there flows a stream of tragic cases, hitherto without official cognizance and many without prior experience, involving prostitution, vagrancy, and association with companions in a manner tending toward moral depravity. Moreover, the substitution in industry of young girls for men called to military service renders them financially independent and emancipated from parental discipline.

Other reasons have been advanced for increased delinquency and crime in countries participating in the war, but these seem chiefly responsible. Statistics concerning the experiences of France, Germany, and Italy during World War I (not now available, of course, as to World War II) indicated the prevalence of the same causes in relatively the same degree.

All of which brings us to the point of asking what must be done to prevent the unnecessary corruption of our youth by the by-products of a world revolution diabolically conceived and executed by people passing as mature adults. How may this expensive and devastating tragedy of first magnitude be averted?

THESE questions seem not too difficult to answer, but the facets of the response cannot be readily transmuted from wish into reality. We know—or think we do—what ought to be done; we are not certain of the willingness of the staunch opponents of measures that have been exaggeratedly phrased as "non-defense spending" to restore services that have been taken away, and to create what did not exist before. It would be naïve to expect that these suddenly virtuous guardians of public funds should have benefited by the sad experiences of other nations at war, when their awareness of similar problems while we were at peace was not put to use in the service of that difficult and delicate task—the adoption of preventive and remedial measures. Dr. Mannheim recalled to us the classic comment of John Galsworthy's jurymen when called upon to serve at a criminal trial during the early stages of the last war. Expressing impatience with this task, he exploded: "There oughtn't to be any crime in these days."

There "oughtn't to be"—but there is, and will be as long as complacency results in doing nothing. Truculent disapproval of crime makes good newspaper copy, especially when expressed by officials associated with our law enforcement machinery, but the prevention of juvenile delinquency and adolescent crime requires a program of amelioration rather than punishment, and a determination to carry out its essential purposes. Such a program would include the following:

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Parents' Questions and Discussion

Edited by the Staff of the Child Study Association of America

What should one do about temper tantrums? My little girl of four, usually quite sweet and sunny, will suddenly go into rages. She throws herself on the floor and kicks and screams—sometimes until she vomits. It is terrifying. I suppose I should ignore it all and just leave the room but I fear she would tear the whole place to pieces. I've tried spanking but it only makes her angrier.

Temperaments can't be treated all by themselves. It is important first to consider the child's life as a whole. Jealousies and frictions with other brothers and sisters or discontent in her relation to you might be important factors. Do you have enough time together when you aren't in a great hurry to get something done, but can relax and enjoy each other? Or possibly the child has too much direction, too little chance to do things for herself, too many nagging demands upon her. Or she may be overstimulated and overstimulated. Sometimes more rest at noon, or supper in bed may help.

The next most important thing is to try to forestall the rages. If you see one coming because, for example, she won't take her hat and coat off after coming indoors, give her more rein and wait. Let her keep the wraps on awhile till she is in a better humor, when they are likely to come off easily. If you see a quarrel in the making between her and the baby, don't just stand around till it breaks. Get her attention directed elsewhere or separate them physically. *Never* give an order or make a threat you aren't prepared to enforce. Wait and see what the situation really calls for before announcing what you're going to do about it. Having decided, don't yield your point.

However, in spite of everything, temperaments sometimes will break loose. Remember that anger is terrifying to the child, too. She feels threatened by the violence of emotions that she cannot manage. She needs your help and reassurance at these times. Consequently it is really very important that *you* should not be terrified. Stay in the room with her while she rages, sitting quietly with your work if you can. When you can get a word in edgewise quietly say something like this: "Yes, I know you hate me now. That's because I can't let you do what you want. When you're quiet I'll show you a funny picture I

saw in a magazine." As soon as possible take her on your lap and have some fun with her. Let her discover that though rages never get you what you want, parents understand about them, and they don't stop loving you.

I am beginning to wonder if I have really spoiled my Jane. She's just six, hardly more than a baby, so I don't expect too much of her. But she certainly has had trouble fitting into school this year and the teacher thinks I spoil her at home. My own parents were terribly strict. I've wanted so much to make my baby's childhood happier than mine was—but perhaps I've gone too far. How strict should one be with a six-year-old? And how can I tell if she's spoiled?

It's not very easy to answer your question without knowing you, Jane or her teacher. Some people are all too ready to dub a child "spoiled," and some teachers expect too much of little children. Six-year-olds can't be expected to be models of deportment. When they are, it's far from healthy. Too much discipline may "spoil" a child, too. But six-year-olds are not babies and they should begin to show signs of growing up and of gradually accepting more disciplined ways. We do have to help our children grow out of babyhood by making reasonable demands and enforcing reasonable restrictions.

In trying to judge whether or not your child is "spoiled," you might ask yourself these questions: Is she happy and pleased with life most of the time—or fretful and whiney—demanding and hard to ever satisfy? Can she play happily with other children, or does she want to be with adults most of the time? Does she usually take direction in a cheerful matter of course way, or is she constantly rebellious or sulky? Can she accept denials with reasonable grace, or does every refusal precipitate a devastating storm?

Try to be honest with yourself. Perhaps you have been too lenient as the teacher suggests. It is hard to steer a wise course between overseverity and over-indulgence, especially if your own childhood was an unhappy one. But keeping this in mind, you may be better to keep the balance.

My boy of ten constantly dawdles in the morning and is often late for school. I have kept at him and scolded him for this but he seems to have no sense of responsibility about time. Do you think the school should force the child to come on time by suitable punishments, or should the home take the responsibility?

Getting to school on time is one of the child's first social responsibilities. Many children have trouble in meeting such demands, but it is certainly part of the parents' job to help them learn and to share the responsibility until they do. If the home can be managed in the morning so that the atmosphere is relaxed and efficient, if the child is awakened in time to dress and eat his breakfast unhurriedly, a great deal of friction can be avoided and he will probably get to school on time.

Try such devices as setting out his clothes the night before or helping him to do it himself. Give him an alarm clock of his own and make a game of dressing within a stated period. Give him the sort of breakfast he likes so it will go down easily. A little ingenuity in planning will provide a great variety of nutritious breakfasts. Try to have the whole family breakfast together, if that is possible, and talk about family plans or other topics in which the child is interested. Leaving from a warm friendly atmosphere is very different from being "pushed out" in a hurry.

If these simple devices fail, it may be necessary to look deeper for the cause of the dawdling. Perhaps your boy is unhappy at school and finds it disagreeable to go there. Perhaps you have been so concerned with time and punctuality that he feels forced to resist. Some families seem to make a fetish of schedules and routines. Perhaps he really needs more of your company than he is getting and uses dawdling to keep your attention. In the final analysis, dawdling is just a symptom. The "cure" may involve

a thorough reviewing of all the child's needs and relationships.

My son is only sixteen but insists he is going to get a job this summer in the war effort. While I approve of his patriotic spirit, I think full-time war work would be too hard for him. I can find plenty of work for him on our grounds and garden this summer. How can I help him accept this less dramatic rôle and wait until he is old enough to make a real contribution to the war effort?

Of course boys vary greatly in their rate of maturing, but at sixteen some boys are more ready than we think, both physically and emotionally, to assume a man's place in the world. It is not surprising therefore that many of them chafe at the restraints which our way of life has placed upon them. The nature of our industrial organization has forced us to safeguard young people—yet ways must be found to utilize their desire for service and their abilities, without exploiting them.

Parents are not always good judges of their children's limitations or capacities for mature responsibilities. A child is likely to behave his youngest with his family. You may be right in considering your boy too young for a real job, but it would be well to check this with an outsider's judgment. What do his teachers say of his maturity? If he has a genuine drive to be "up and doing"—perhaps not entirely war-inspired—then it would be hard to sell him the idea that the family lawn is important. Moreover, adolescents find very real satisfaction and growth in independence in working for outsiders. Working for one's own family does not have the same significance. If your boy really needs supervision, a work-camp might be a good compromise. But if he is reasonably mature, and if there is no special physical reason to rule out hard work, then it might be best to let him take a real job which will give him the satisfaction of feeling that he is part of the stream of adult living.

CHILDREN IN WARTIME

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Suggestions for Study: Discipline for Today

GUIDING PRINCIPLES

I. GUIDING THE YOUNG CHILD

Little children need our help in learning to control their impulses and to get on with other people. At first they depend upon us entirely for guidance, but gradually, if our discipline has been both kindly and firm, they build their own consciences and inner controls. But the child cannot accept the standards we set unless he loves the person who controls him, and feels warmly loved in return. Nor can he develop his own controls if outer pressures are too stern and unyielding. He needs clear standards, a beloved model, and room to try himself out.

II. WHAT DO WE WANT FROM OUR CHILDREN?

The demands which we make upon our children are confused and contradictory. It is no wonder, then, that our results are often unsatisfactory. We cannot have both blind obedience and intelligent self-direction—ruthless hardness and a sensitivity to the needs of others—cooperative enterprise and competitive drive. We must ask ourselves again, what are our real aims in a democracy, and how can we educate for them? Discipline suitable to a democracy demands democratic living in homes and schools, respect for the dignity and worth of each individual, the cooperative solution of problems for the common good. Results of a recent careful study suggest that progressive schools are more successful than traditional ones in producing these qualities.

III. DEMOCRATIC DISCIPLINE FOR THE ADOLESCENT

If democracies are to survive they must produce individuals who are capable of self-discipline for the common good. Inner discipline, springing from deeply felt purpose, is the goal. Discipline by one's peers is next best, and a step on the way. Discipline by adults is needed at times, even in adolescence. Parents and teachers must help the adolescent to achieve a sense of values in a society which surrounds him with many conflicting standards. They can help most by their own sincerity and the examples they provide. Opportunities for cooperative work in a common cause, for self-government and responsibility are important at this age.

IV. DELINQUENCY AND THE WAR

Experience teaches us that juvenile delinquency tends to increase in wartime. Nor is this surprising. Aggression and ruthlessness become social virtues overnight. This is upsetting to all of us, especially to the young and unstable. Psychological pressures, which always play a large part in delinquency, are markedly increased by this aggressive war atmosphere. Relaxed social standards, new temptations, diminished supervision, and rapid shifts of population all play their part. We know how to offset these influences, if only we could enlist public support. Better school and recreation facilities are needed, more family guidance services, the use of young people in the war effort.

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Two toddlers were playing in a sand box. In a fit of anger one threw sand into the other's face. His

mother picked him up bodily and, scolding him, plumped him down in his carriage. The child howled. The mother said sternly, "You're a naughty boy, and I don't love you!" Then she turned to chat with her friend, pointedly ignoring her screaming youngster. What is wrong with this picture? Should the child have been disciplined? How might it have been handled constructively?

2. Mary, aged eight, is a shy, dainty little girl. Her manners are perfect, she practically never gets dirty. She is obedient and helpful and unustally conscientious. The neighbors point her out as a model child, but their children find her dull and sissy. Is Mary "well brought up"? If you were Mary's teacher what would you do about her?

3. Mrs. Jones has sent both her children to progressive schools. They are happy, and have been developing well. But now she wonders if this kind of education won't make them "too soft" for the world which lies ahead. Her son is ready for high school. Perhaps it would be better to transfer him to a strict boarding school. What do you think?

4. In an underprivileged district of a large city the juvenile delinquency rate is unusually high. The city has just opened a new high school in this area, unusually well equipped with studios, shops, laboratories, and gymnasiums. Mrs. Curtis, a banker's wife, complains of the "outrageous cost to the taxpayers." How might one answer her?

REFERENCE READING

"The Parents' Manual: A Guide to the Emotional Development of Young Children".....1941
by Anna W. M. Wolf Simon & Schuster

"We, the Parents".....1939
by Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg Harper & Bros.

"The Nursery Years".....1937
by Susan Isaacs Vanguard Press

"Parents and Children Go to School".....1939
by Dorothy W. Baruch Scott, Foresman Co.

"Children in the Family".....1940
by Florence Powdermaker, M.D., and Louise Ireland Grimes Farrar and Rinehart

"Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence".....1940
by Caroline B. Zachry D. Appleton-Century

"Do Adolescents Need Parents?".....1938
by Katherine W. Taylor, for Commission on Human Relations D. Appleton-Century

"New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment".....1936
by William Healy and Augusta Bronner Yale University Press

Books for Parents and Teachers

1941-1942 Supplement

*Selected by the Bibliography Committee of
the Child Study Association of America*

- ADVENTURE IN EDUCATION, AN: SWARTHMORE COLLEGE UNDER FRANK AYDELOTTE.** *By the Faculty.* Macmillan Co. 1941. 236 pp. \$2.50. An interesting description of the educational system at Swarthmore College, its history and philosophy.
- AMERICA.** *By David Cushman Coyle.* National Home Library Association. 1941. 91 pp. \$.25. A brief, dramatic account of the present crisis—why we are fighting and what we are fighting for.
- BRAVE ENOUGH FOR LIFE.** *By Bonaro W. Overstreet.* Harper & Bros. 1941. 210 pp. \$2.50. A realistic philosophy of life expressing warm faith in human life and personality—heartening for these difficult times.
- CAMBRIDGE EVACUATION SURVEY: A WARTIME STUDY IN SOCIAL WELFARE AND EDUCATION.** *Edited by Susan Isaacs.* Methuen & Co. 1941. 235 pp. \$2.75. A study of evacuated children which stresses the psychological adjustments involved.
- CHILDREN HAVE THEIR REASONS.** *By Ruth W. Washburn.* D. Appleton-Century. 1942. 257 pp. \$2.00. A friendly, relaxed approach to childhood and its normal problems.
- CHILDREN IN A WORLD OF CONFLICT.** *By Roy F. Street.* Christopher Publishing House. 1941. 304 pp. \$2.50. Explains children's behavior in terms of the pressures upon them and suggests modifications in our educational system to further their healthier adjustment.
- COLOR, CLASS AND PERSONALITY.** *By Robert L. Sutherland (prepared for the American Youth Commission).* American Council on Education. 1942. 135 pp. \$.75. Summarizes a series of thoughtful and provocative studies of the Negro youth problem and offers considered suggestions for social action.
- DARK LEGEND: A STUDY IN MURDER.** *By Frederick Wertham, M.D.* Duell, Sloan and Pearce. 1941. 255 pp. \$2.75. A fascinating study of a young matricide, explaining the deep psychological processes involved in such a crime, and drawing telling parallels to the Hamlet and Orestes legends.
- DEMOCRACY AND SPORT.** *By John R. Tunis.* A. S. Barnes. 1941. 52 pp. \$.75. Defines the real purposes of sport and its rôle in democratic education.
- EDUCATION FOR TODAY AND TOMORROW.** *By Floyd W. Reeves.* Harvard University Press. 1942. 65 pp. \$1.00. The director of the American Youth Commission makes a brief but vital plea for changes in our secondary schools in the light of war conditions and post-war problems.
- EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY.** *Edited by Newton Edwards.* University of Chicago Press. 1941. 171 pp. \$1.75. Provocative lectures, delivered at the University of Chicago, on the functions and responsibilities of education as a force in American life.
- EDUCATION OF FREE MEN IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY, THE.** *By the Educational Policies Commission.* National Education Association. 1941. 115 pp. \$.50. Discusses democracy as a great social faith and explores the relation of individual freedom to a democratic system of education. Study outlines included.
- HELP YOUR DOCTOR HELP YOU.** *Colitis (41 pp.). Food Allergy (61 pp.). Gallstones and Diseases of the Gall Bladder (41 pp.). Gastric or Duodenal Ulcer (65 pp.). Migraine (37 pp.).* Harper & Bros. 1941. \$.95 each. A series of brief booklets sponsored by a committee of eminent physicians, recognizing to some extent psychological, as well as physiological, factors in disease.
- HOW MIRACLES ABOUND.** *By Bertha Stevens.* Beacon Press. 1941. 200 pp. \$1.85. An approach to nature study for young children which parents and teachers will find helpful, despite its slightly sentimental overtone.
- HOW TO STUDY THE BEHAVIOR OF CHILDREN.** *By Gertrude Driscoll.* Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College. 1941. 84 pp. \$.60. The study of children's behavior in school approached as a key to guiding their well-rounded development and growth.
- IN DEFENSE OF CHILDREN.** *By Bert I. Beverly, M.D.* John Day Co. 1941. 216 pp. \$2.00. Urges parents to accept the child as he is, suggesting that much of the behavior which parents find disturbing is a part of normal development.
- INVITATION TO DANCE.** *By Walter Terry.* A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc. 1942. 180 pp. \$2.00. A refreshingly written account of the dance, advocating its universal use for recreation, education, and therapy.
- IT RUNS IN THE FAMILY.** *By James Lee Ellenwood.* Charles Scribner's Sons. 1942. 236 pp. \$2.00. A humorous picture of family life, valuable for its contagious spirit of tolerance and cooperation.
- LET'S TALK IT OVER.** *By Leonard P. Aries.* Willet, Clark. 1941. 91 pp. \$1.00. A manual on group discussion with high school students, including graphic samples from a seminar on "Our American Way."
- LIFE AND WAYS OF THE TWO-YEAR-OLD.** *By Louise P. Woodcock.* E. P. Dutton. 1941. 267 pp. \$2.00. A sympathetic picture of the two-year-old, what he is and where he is going, based on many years of experience in nursery school teaching.
- LITERATURE FOR INDIVIDUAL EDUCATION.** *By Esther Raushenbush.* Columbia University Press. 1942. 262 pp. \$2.75. Describes a stimulating experimental approach to literature teaching at Sarah Lawrence College.
- LITTLE RED SCHOOL HOUSE, THE.** *By Agnes de Lima and staff.* Macmillan. 1942. 355 pp. \$3.50. A very readable account of progressive education as actually practiced with each age group in this unique elementary school.
- MAKING THE MOST OF YOUR PERSONALITY.** *By Winifred V. Richmond.* Farrar and Rinehart, Inc. 1942. 247 pp. \$1.75. A warm and realistic book addressed to boys and girls of high school age, reflecting the author's deep understanding of human behavior and personality development. Helpful also for parents and teachers.

MENTAL HEALTH IN THE CLASSROOM. *Thirteenth Year Book of Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. National Education Association.* 1941. 304 pp. \$2.00. A collection of papers by well-known educators, containing much of real value despite an inevitable unevenness of tone.

PARENTS' MANUAL: A GUIDE TO THE EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG CHILDREN, THE. By Anna W. M. Wolf. Simon and Schuster. 1941. 331 pp. \$2.50. A practical and reassuring guide for the parents of young children, helping them with their immediate problems and leading them toward a deeper understanding of their children and themselves.

PLAY FOR CONVALESCENT CHILDREN IN HOSPITALS AND AT HOME. By Anne Marie Smith. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1941. 133 pp. \$1.60. A plea for play as part of convalescent treatment, with excellent practical suggestions on methods and materials as developed at Children's Memorial Hospital, Chicago.

PRINCIPLES OF ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY. By A. H. Maslow and Bela Mittlemann, M.D. Harper & Bros. 1941. 638 pp. \$3.50. An unusual approach to abnormal psychology which has much to offer to the understanding of normal people. Excellent comprehensive bibliographies.

PROGRESS TO FREEDOM. By Agnes Benedict. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1942. 309 pp. \$3.00. A living story of education in America, dramatizing the struggle through which the earliest schools evolved into those of today.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF WAR ON CITIZEN AND SOLDIER. By R. D. Gillespie, M.D. W. W. Norton & Co. 1942. 243 pp. \$2.75. A forward-looking discussion of recent English experience and its meaning for children and adults. Of general interest, except for three technical chapters.

PSYCHOLOGY FOR INDIVIDUAL EDUCATION. By Lois Barclay Murphy and others. Columbia University Press. 1942. 306 pp. \$2.75. Describes an experimental approach to psychology teaching as a method of individual orientation. A Sarah Lawrence College study.

PUBLIC HEALTH NURSE IN ACTION, THE. By Marguerite Wales. Macmillan Co. 1941. 424 pp. \$2.75. Stories of actual situations showing the numerous ways in which a public health nurse can help in the life of the community.

ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN HEALTH EDUCATION, THE. By Ruth M. Strang and Dean F. Smiley. Macmillan. 1941. 359 pp. \$2.00. Materials and methods of health education presented as an integral part of the work of the school.

STORY OF THE EIGHT-YEAR STUDY (Vol. I of Adventure in American Education Series). By Wilfred M. Aikin. Harper & Bros. 1942. 157 pp. \$1.75. A popular report of an eight-year experiment which may revolutionize secondary education in America. A scientific evaluation of progressive education.

STUDENT PERSONNEL PROBLEMS. By C. Gilbert Wrenn and Reginald Bell. Farrar and Rinehart. 1942. 259 pp. \$2.00. A study of the adjustment problems of 5,000 college freshmen, with suggestions for improving guidance services in high schools and colleges.

TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIPS. By Bernice Baxter. Macmillan. 1941. 166 pp. \$1.25. Studies teacher-pupil

relationships and points out the effect of teacher personality on child behavior. Suggestive for parents as well.

TEACHING THE INDIVIDUAL. By Ruth L. Monroe. Columbia University Press. 1942. 353 pp. \$3.00. Describes a challenging experiment at Sarah Lawrence College, illustrating the close relationship between individual personality needs and educational outcomes.

UNDERSTANDING YOUR BABY. By Lois R. Schultz and Mollie S. Smart. Sun Dial Press. 1942. 112 pp. \$1.00. Presents in delightful pictures and brief, simple text, scientific findings on the baby's development and behavior in his first year. From the Merrill-Palmer School.

WAY OF THE STORYTELLER, THE. By Ruth Sawyer. Viking Press. 1942. 310 pp. \$2.50. Story-telling as a living art charmingly discussed by a talented storyteller. Contains eleven of her best tales.

WHAT BOOKS FOR CHILDREN? By Josette Frank. Doubleday Doran. Revised edition, 1941. 363 pp. \$2.50. A thoughtful approach to children's reading, with new chapters on radio and the comics. Includes revised lists prepared by the Children's Book Committee of the Child Study Association.

YOUR CHILD MEETS THE WORLD OUTSIDE. By Elizabeth F. Boettiger. D. Appleton-Century Co. 1941. 179 pp. \$2.00. An experienced, progressive teacher helps parents to recognize and use the learning experiences for children in everyday living. Helpful, despite a slightly perfectionist attitude.

YOUR CHILDREN AT SCHOOL. By Elizabeth Vernon Hubbard. John Day Co. 1942. 176 pp. \$2.75 and \$1.96. A day-by-day account of the school experiences of young children with a teacher who loves and understands them. Useful to parents, as well as teachers.

YOUTH AND THE FUTURE. By the American Youth Commission. American Council on Education. 1942. 296 pp. \$2.50. A comprehensive volume summarizing the reports of the American Youth Commission and restating its findings from a long-term point of view. Contains specific recommendations.

YOUTH LOOKS AT MARRIAGE. By M'Ledge Moffett. Association Press. 1942. 48 pp. \$.25. A discussion guide, including thought-provoking questions, for use by groups of young people in clubs or classes. Written simply and from a conservative point of view.

FICTION

The books listed below are recommended because of their special insight into some phase of family relationship or the emotional life of children. (The list makes no pretense of covering the fiction of the year.)

ABOUT TOM. By Irma Weill. Island Workshop Press. 1941. 96 pp. \$1.75.

JOURNEY FOR MARGARET. By W. L. White. Harcourt Brace. 1941. 256 pp. \$2.50.

MY FRIEND FLICKA. By Mary O'Hara. J. B. Lippincott. 1941. 349 pp. \$2.50.

THE PIED PIPER. By Neville Shute. William Morrow & Co. 1942. 288 pp. \$2.50.

THE SUN CLIMBS SLOW. By Julia Davis. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1942. 255 pp. \$2.50.

Book Reviews

Progress to Freedom. By Agnes E. Benedict. G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1942. 299 pp. \$2.50.

This story of American education makes absorbing reading. Beginning with colonial days, it describes in vivid fashion the church school which the unfortunate children of parents able to pay their tuition attended. There these children learned to read the Scripture and respond to the catechism, sitting immobile, hour after hour, on boards without backs—flogged with a rawhide whip for any lack of knowledge or slight transgression of the harsh discipline. The following illustration gives the flavor of this education compounded of rigidity and terror:

"What did the Reverend Hopkins say?" asked the Master.

"Methinks I see the dragon flood waiting to devour the child as soon as it is born. . . . Children should repair them to the burying ground."

The Master leans closer. "What would they see in the burying ground?"

"They would see graves. . . ." Then in a low voice, . . . "Graves shorter than they." The child stumbles on with the terrible catechism. "If children did not submit to their superiors (*i.e.*, elders) they would . . ." he falters.

"Die," thunders the Master, "and be snatched to everlasting Hell!" The Master's eyes are strangely bright.

But fortunately this was not the whole story. In colonial days the child's real education took place outside the school. He learned about building shelter, getting food and making clothes, because he shared in the family's hard struggle for existence.

"Progress to Freedom" traces the development of American education from these early days to the present, showing the church school, the dame school, the Latin and English schools, and the pauper schools, as they sprang up in different sections of the country. Today, when free education for all children is a part of our accepted practice, it is a good thing to be reminded of the bitter struggles that were fought to emancipate the school from the control of a special group. Reading of the intense feeling that was aroused over the question of "socialized education," when churches, private schools and taxpayers were all united against the revolutionary idea of tax-sup-

ported schools for all children, we can view some of our struggles of today in truer perspective.

The book is a mine of facts, but facts made vivid by a challenging story. In 1857, John Swett, superintendent of schools in California, showed the taxpayers that the state spent nearly three times as much for the support of the average 400 criminals as for the education of its 30,000 children. When such facts were made known by educational pioneers, they began to count with the public at large. Although there are fine accounts of all the well-known names in the history of education, one of the book's special contributions is the way in which it weaves into a significant pattern the devoted work done by many less well-known men and women.

It is hard for a review of this length to suggest the richness of this story of education. We know that in spite of the long road which education has traveled, the traditional school in which learning is more important than human beings has not yet disappeared. If one wishes to understand the past and look intelligently ahead to the future of American education, one can do no better than read "Progress to Freedom."

IRMA W. HEWLETT

The Story of the Eight-Year Study. Volume I of Adventure in American Education. By Wilford M. Aikin. Harper & Bros. 150 pp. \$1.75.

In May, 1932, the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association presented to colleges and schools "a proposal for better coordination of school and college work." The acceptance of this proposal by more than three hundred colleges and universities and by thirty secondary schools initiated the Eight-Year Study. The importance of this experimental approach to the problem of secondary school education is not exaggerated by Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, when he reports:

"This book, along with the supporting details, will undoubtedly rank as one of the major contributions of our age to the improvement of secondary education."

This first volume of the five-volume report constitutes an overview of the Study and contains the conclusions and recommendations of the Commission. Most readers will wish to examine the supporting data and extended discussion to be found in the other

volumes; of these, only the second, on the curriculum, is referred to in this review.

The work of the Commission originated in a general dissatisfaction with many aspects of the American secondary school. The desire of progressive educators to engage in a free and thoroughgoing attack on the problems of the secondary school had been hampered by the reactionary influence of college entrance requirements, which not only forced schools to teach traditional subject matter in traditional ways to those who would enter the colleges but also prevented any wise approach to the problem of education for the large majority who did not go further than high school. The Commission opened a door for the thirty schools—perhaps for all the American high schools—when colleges agreed to accept boys and girls on an entirely new basis: first, the statement of the principal or headmaster that the applicant was qualified to do college work; and, second, an unusually comprehensive record of the applicant's high school career, including the scores achieved on numerous tests of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Mr. Aikin describes frankly the varying reactions of the faculties of the thirty schools. Some were elated by a new sense of freedom; some were awed by the responsibility they had accepted, and were often apprehensive. There were many difficulties; there were many mistakes; there were occasional intra-school feuds. But, by and large, participation in the Eight-Year Study enlisted enthusiasms and released energies that had not been evident before.

Since the Commission wanted freedom for the schools, it did not impose ideas or plans on them, or do much more than make available the services of numerous expert consultants. The schools, in consequence, took their own roads, meeting their problems in ways that seemed best to them. Aikin describes briefly the changes in curriculum and teaching procedure that occurred, stressing the fact that some schools made only slight changes in curriculum, while others altered the curriculum profoundly, and consequently made great changes in their teaching.

Whatever the final decisions, all the schools made one great discovery: that a school can function most efficiently only when it chooses a single great objective and works toward its achievement. Most of the schools altered their curricula, their teaching, and their relations with the community to meet more directly the demands of this objective.

There is an interesting chapter on the ways in which the schools learned to study their pupils. But the most important chapters in the book are those

which report the evaluation studies and conclusions and recommendations of the Commission.

It is now well known that pupils from the experimental schools did as well as or better than their carefully matched peers from traditional schools in almost all aspects of college life. It is perhaps not as well known that pupils from those schools which departed the farthest from traditional practices excelled their matched peers by far. The study not only demonstrates that the traditional curriculum and methods of teaching were not essential to success in college; it also shows that when the needs and interests of youth were most directly met, when schools devoted themselves most wholeheartedly to the education of all boys and girls—this simultaneously provided a superior preparation for the college entrant.

The Commission, then, reports as follows: "To move ahead, schools must have encouragement from colleges. To give that encouragement, colleges must abandon their present admissions policy. . . . The second major implication of the results of the Eight-Year Study is that secondary schools can be trusted with a greater measure of freedom than college requirements now permit." And as a statement of purpose, ". . . the chief purpose of education in the United States should be to preserve, promote, and refine the way of life in which we as a people believe."

The second volume in the report, "Exploring the Curriculum," documents and enriches the first. For the parent or teacher to whom this study is new, it will supply some of the facts upon which a judgment can be based. It is important that the skeptics and the traditionalists face these facts. The Eight-Year Study has put upon them the burden of proving that these new ways are not better ways.

WALTER H. WOLFF

Psychological Effects of War on Citizen and Soldier.
By R. D. Gillespie, M.D. W. W. Norton & Co.,
1942. 243 pp. \$2.75.

What is the psychological aftermath of this new kind of warfare, involving whole peoples as it does? Many of us have wondered and will turn eagerly to Dr. Gillespie for an authoritative answer. While his first three chapters on psychoneurosis are too technical to interest the general reader, the remainder of his book—a thoughtful discussion of recent English experience—should have wide appeal.

Among soldiers and civilians alike, Dr. Gillespie points out, those who go to pieces under strain are the individuals who had been unstable before the war. Such personalities are recognizable psychiatrically, and

they should be singled out and protected. Despite air raids, the incidence of breakdown has been lower among civilians than in the armed services. Dr. Gillespie suggests that this may well be due to the greater freedom of action which civilians are allowed in a terrifying situation. His speculations on regimentation and mental health are intensely suggestive.

The stability of parents has proved an important factor in determining the outcomes for children. And we are told again that "there is much evidence that the best insurance against psychoneuroses is security in family relationships." Parents and teachers will welcome not only the author's advice on the immediate handling of children in a crisis but also his forward-looking and provocative discussion of "Human Relations in the Post-War World."

ELEANOR DEMING

Your Child Meets the World Outside. By Elizabeth Boettiger. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941. 179 pp. \$2.00.

Children need our help in exploring and interpreting the world around them. The simplest experiences of everyday living can be made meaningful under the guidance of a skillful adult. After many years of successful teaching in progressive schools, Miss Boettiger has a wealth of illustrative material to offer. She is sensitive to the interests of children and skillful in leading them out toward wider horizons and deepened understanding. Her many simple, well-chosen illustrations will help other teachers and parents to recognize and use the many natural teaching opportunities in their day to day contacts with children.

Miss Boettiger stresses four areas in describing the child's orientation to the outside world: nature, machinery, people, and community life. In directing children we must aim, she feels, for developing a genuine perspective which gives man his place in the world of nature and which "puts machines in their place as extensions and supplements of human beings." So, too, we must guide the child's relations with people toward tolerance and appreciation of individual difference, while still helping him to adjust to group needs and demands.

Perhaps Miss Boettiger is more concerned than she need be with the importance of making every experience a consistent step toward these goals. Many of us may feel that children do not need as much protection from the cheap and tawdry or purely foolish as she would give them. There is much to be said for allowing the child to find out for himself about rela-

tive values and satisfactions. Nor can adults always predict the needs which are being met by the child's self-chosen activities and possessions. Adults have an important rôle to play as guides and interpreters, but this rôle can be overplayed, too. With a slight warning against this perfectionism, Miss Boettiger's book can be heartily recommended for its many positive contributions.

HELEN G. STERNAU

Children Have Their Reasons. By Ruth Wendell Washburn. Appleton-Century. 275 pp. \$2.00.

This is a pleasantly written book, full of incidents and examples that bring out the author's intuitive sense for childhood. Dr. Washburn has had years of experience as psychologist at the Clinic of Child Development of Yale University, and her emphasis is always on the need for understanding the whole child and his problems before trying to give help on specific matters, such as disobedience, aggressiveness, shyness, and the like. "This book was written," she says, "to emphasize and reemphasize the fact that it is insight, not formulas or techniques or ready-made methods, that make for the successful training of children." Occasionally it is true that she seems to resort to oversimplification and to leave parents with the feeling that affection and a sensitive appreciation will solve all problems. On the other hand, her understanding on the whole is sound and offers much that is practical.

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Youth Takes Its Part

A Report on the Symposium: "What Can Our Young People Do This Summer Toward the War Effort?"

TO MEET the increasing desire of our older boys and girls to participate in the nation's war activities, and to survey the opportunities that will be available to them during the coming summer months, the Child Study Association of America presented a symposium on this subject on April 29 at the New York Times Hall in New York. The program included a panoramic report of the outstanding educational, industrial, agricultural, and other projects for boys and girls from fourteen to eighteen. Short statements of projects were given by the following representatives of organizations: Evelyn Murray, for the United States Employment Service; Helen Harris, for the National Youth Administration; Alan F. Klein, for the Youth Division of the Greater New York Office of Civilian Defense; Algernon Black, for the Work Camp Department of the International Student Service; John M. Horner, for the New York City Young Men's Christian Association; Acabie Carman, for the New York City Young Women's Christian Association; Meyer E. Fichman, for the New York Metropolitan Section of the Jewish Welfare Board; Eleanor Edson, for the Girl Scout Council of Greater New York; Alfred C. Nichols, Jr., for the Boy Scout Foundation of Greater New York; Irma L. Lindheim, for the Volunteer Land Corps, and Ben D. Wood, for the Joint Advisory Committee on Aviation Education to the Civil Aeronautics Administration and the United States Office of Education. The Honorable Frieda S. Miller, Industrial Commissioner of the New York State Department of Labor, gave a short address on the work problems of young people. The projects were then discussed by a panel consisting of Sidonie M. Gruenberg, director of the Child Study Association; Vivian T. Thayer, educational director of the Ethical Culture Schools; Dr. Florence Powdermaker, psychiatrist; Dr. Bernard Glueck, psychiatrist and director of the Family Guidance and Consultation Service of the Child Study Association; Leonard Covello, principal of the Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City, and Joshua Lieberman, educator. Mrs. Samuel A. Lewisohn, chairman of the Public Education Association, presided.

The opportunities that were described fell into three main categories—vacation jobs with pay, volunteer

services of all kinds, and training courses that teach skill and knowledge for important work in the future. Jobs are handled largely through the United States Employment Service, which is the official agency for mobilizing war work. War work, it was pointed out, is more than actual war production work—all useful work is war work. At present, boys and girls who are still at school are not wanted in the war industries. They are being advised to take other jobs for the summer and to plan to return to school. For high school and college students, there are many opportunities for camp jobs, for work in summer resorts, and on farms. Under a joint project of the United States Employment Service and the New York City Board of Education, work on farms is being offered to boys and girls over sixteen, not as a vacation experience but to do hard, necessary work, chiefly in the harvesting of fruits and vegetables. For young people who are through school, the NYA has a comprehensive program of education through jobs in the production of needed articles, through services in public and semi-public agencies, and through work experiences in useful fields. Unemployed boys and girls from seventeen to twenty-four, either graduates of high school or recommended by a principal as in need of employment, are eligible under this plan, which carries with it a small wage to cover expenses. In this way many girls, as well as boys, are being trained in war production jobs, in machine work, in metal industries, and radio work. There are more and more jobs becoming available in many of these fields as young people replace adults who have joined the armed forces.

In addition to these opportunities for work with pay, many other activities are being offered to young people which combine a chance for unselfish service with valuable training. Among the most significant of these is the Work Camp movement, which has grown out of the feeling that academic education is too verbal, that knowledge of things, of physical work, of people of many backgrounds, is essential to sound educational development. In Work Camps boys and girls undertake real work projects that are needed by the communities in which they operate—in one it may be farm labor, in another a recreation program for a boom town. In each case the work

program is supplemented by a study program on citizenship, and is carried on as an experiment in living in a most heterogeneous group and learning the vital meaning of democracy. Another program that gives concrete expression to the idealism and wish for service that is so much a part of youth today is that of the Volunteer Land Corps. This group, working with the United States Employment Service and the Children's Bureau, is placing boys over sixteen and girls over eighteen on farms in Vermont and New Hampshire. This land army movement, started in peacetime, aims to serve the nation in peace and in war with a constructive program of farming and soil conservation.

The other groups, too, help to give young people a sense of participation. The community programs of the YMCA and the YWCA, the groups included in the Jewish Welfare Board, the Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts, and others, all stress the development of social responsibility, of community cooperation and goodwill. They also develop personal resources through training and taking part in the many facets of war service at home—Junior Red Cross work, salvaging programs, the sale of war bonds and stamps, and aiding in civilian defense work. Many of these activities are cleared through the Office of Civilian Defense, which is concerned not only with the jobs to be done but with developing the necessary leadership for all of these projects. Training and leadership are especially needed in the field of aviation. There will be a tremendous demand for personnel to man the vast number of planes now being planned, and, said Dr. Wood, "if the war lasts as long as we expect, it will be the junior and senior high school students of today who will furnish the reservoir of air force which will beat the Axis." Civil pilot training programs are being introduced in many colleges, and courses in the elements of pre-flight training will be given this summer in many high schools.

Commissioner Miller raised some important general considerations to be borne in mind in evaluating all these work possibilities for boys and girls. She showed that the number of young people in industry has already increased to a marked extent. In 1941 first employment certificates were issued in New York State to 69,000 children sixteen and seventeen years old—an increase of 87 per cent over 1940—and there has been a similar upward trend in vacation and after-school work. This is a fact and not a theory. Young people are entering work fields partly for economic reasons, but also because of their wish to participate, to give as well as to receive. There still remains,

however, the question of what is best for these children. Their participation now must not impair their future usefulness. Minimum standards should be established to prevent strain and safeguard health. If they go away from home to work, it must be under suitable conditions—reasonable hours of work, provisions for proper rest and recreation. Their wages should not undercut the wages of adults who need to make their living by the work they do. It would be a good idea to plan farm programs so that young people could replace adults needed for other necessary work. In choosing work for pay or for volunteer participation, youth should get the best guidance possible so that these first jobs may give them a fair chance to try themselves out and find the kind of work for which they are best suited. In recognizing the value of manual opportunities, of work other than that of white-collar jobs, we are taking a revolutionary step forward; and the opportunity of coordinating educational content with these real work experiences may bring about a much needed expansion and reevaluation of our academic programs.

The panel discussion added some interesting interpretation and comment. All who contributed were impressed with the wide variety of activities and resources now available for young people, in such marked contrast with the meager opportunities during the recent years since the depression. A new attitude toward work itself seems to be emerging—a reorientation of young people *toward* work rather than protecting them from it. What facilities are there, however, to bridge the gap between these activities and the young people themselves? How can the information about these opportunities be organized and made more generally known?

The need for proper guidance was stressed from many different angles. In relation to the problem of juvenile delinquency, which always increases in time of war, it was pointed out that young people are more apt to get into difficulty if they find themselves in jobs for which they are not suited. Boys and girls are easily influenced by talk of jobs that sound romantic and that pay well, but unless they are helped to judge these jobs objectively in terms of their own abilities and personalities, they may find themselves square pegs in round holes. But with existing guidance facilities already overtaxed, how can this need be properly met? It would, of course, be desirable to coordinate the efforts of the different agencies by establishing a bureau to study the young people and the jobs and to bring them together. In the mean-

(Continued on page 127)

Radio Programs for Children

WHAT can radio do for children in wartime? What needs of childhood must radio serve at *any* time? How are children's interests being served today? How can they be better served?

These questions were the subject of a panel discussion at two sessions of the Ohio State University's Institute on Education by Radio, held at Columbus, Ohio, from May 3 to 7.

Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, director of the Child Study Association, was chairman of the meetings, and the panel discussants included Robert Landry, Dr. George Mohr, Lyman Bryson, Erik Barnouw, Julius Seebach, Grace Johnson, Norman Woelfel, Dorothy Lewis, Irene Wicker, Dorothy Gordon, Gordon Hawkins, and Josette Frank.

The discussion left no doubt that there is an urgent demand for more and varied programs, specifically intended for children. There were, however, divergent opinions as to how such programs may be attained. There was the one point of view that since present programs have not met with parental approval, they must be cleared from the air to make room for better ones; and, opposing this, the view that children have a right to these programs, which they obviously like—as evidenced by long years of eager listening.

It was felt that it is neither necessary nor desirable for all programs to be patterned on the formula of present programs, but that creative effort in this field must capitalize on the children's known interests and meet their varied needs, for entertainment as well as education. This involves a knowledge of techniques, plus a realistic knowledge of children at different stages of their development, and faith in their capacities to grow through a wide range of radio listening. Especially urgent was the demand that radio be used to tell children about America and stimulate a faith in, and enthusiasm for, a democratic way of life. In this respect children's radio has so far signally failed to meet the need.

There was lively and hopeful evidence of activity on the part of many independent stations and school and community groups in planning and presenting local programs for children. Out of such experimentation there are bound to come—and are coming—programs which will point the way to new develop-

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The author knows children and schools, and has been writing about various aspects of education for more than thirty years. To get first-hand details for this book, she spent a year visiting The Little Red School House, in New York City, which she considers the most significant single experiment of its kind.

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ments. The fact that they now have limited audiences is less important than the fact that there is stirring a creative rather than a merely critical effort in this field.

The need was stressed again for some coordinating agency which might make available criteria and critical analysis for people who have something to offer in this field, and which might help them find ways to translate radio ideas into action.

In addition to the two work-study group discussions, children's programs were the subject of a breakfast meeting and a forum discussion in which children themselves participated, telling their own interests and preferences in programs. Significant here was the fact that the programs most mentioned by these children were those classified as adult programs. Whether this was due to the paucity of juvenile entertainment programs or to the juvenile nature of some adult programs, was difficult to determine.

The Institute was followed by a two-day conference on the Use of Radio in Youth Group Work. Full proceedings of these meetings will be available, and may be obtained from Ohio State University.

In the Magazines

Young Men in Tunbridge. By Stuart Chase. *Survey Graphic*, May, 1942.

The Volunteer Land Corps offers young men and women an opportunity to join a movement which provides not only important work in the war effort, but a deeply satisfying experience in living as well. Originally organized to give young people real contact with rural needs and work, it is now meeting a desperate need in rural communities for manual help which has been drastically depleted by the war.

Learning About Money. By Marion M. Miller. *Parents' Magazine*, May, 1942.

Children need to learn the meaning and significance of money and its vocabulary—spending, earning, saving, lending. The child's allowance should be granted as an inviolable right, as part of his educational equipment, and should not be jeopardized by punishments or rewards. It should be scaled to his needs, to include fixed and variable expenses; casual coin-giving teaches nothing. An attempt at planned spending makes for control and judgment, no matter how inept a child may be in his distribution. Saving is best learned when children have an ego-satisfying goal, as is proved by their enthusiastic purchase of war savings stamps.

The Discipline of Free Men. By Ordway Tead. *National Parent-Teacher*, May, 1942.

Discipline is distasteful if it is synonymous only with domination. A sounder concept of discipline is that of cooperation—a free concerted effort to contribute willingly toward a desirable end. Such a concept gives us "morale" in wartime, and productive communal activity in normal times. High standards of performance of work within the family group, definite tasks, well supervised and carried out, are excellent ways of training in good discipline.

Psychological Maturity as a Basis for Democracy. By James Marshall. *Survey Graphic*, May, 1942.

A new evaluation of our ways of living is needed. Teaching young people to be successful in attaining power and aggression has not made for a cooperative, mature society of adults. The competitive drive to power destroys the individual's ability to grow toward moral concepts of intelligent, tolerant living. His efforts on this score remain on an infantile level, even

though his worldly achievements may lie on an adult plane. The democratic way of life is not very different from life in the family group, where each member develops on a cooperative rather than on a competitive basis. Relationships in work, play, religion, or politics grow best when based on this same premise, with the individual's growth as a part of, rather than at the expense of, the group.

War Invades the Children's World. By Lois Meek Stolz. *National Parent-Teacher*, May, 1942.

Both good and bad changes are in store for children as a result of the war demands on family life. Fathers and mothers may be partially or wholly absent; whole families will be migrating to new job centers; shortages will mean curtailment of food and travel resources. But out of this situation can come increased community responsibility and cooperation, and new values in home life and understanding of nutrition.

Case of the Murdered Vegetable. By Bruce Bliven. *Parents' Magazine*, May, 1942.

The most vigilant shopping and careful budgeting can come to nothing if vegetables are destroyed by wrong cooking methods. Selective Service rejections traceable to dietary lacks occur in high- and low-income families without discrimination. Experiments proved that 70 to 80 per cent of mineral and vitamin substance of vegetables are being boiled away daily by present cooking methods. Best methods are steaming, pressure cooking, and quick boiling in very little water. Mineral and vitamin riches can be conserved by not peeling fruits and vegetables, and not over-exposing them to air. Vegetables taste better in proportion to the minerals retained.

A Dream for the Nursery School Years. By Barbara Biber. *Progressive Education Magazine*, May, 1942.

If we were unhampered by the present emergency difficulties, what are the standards we would set up for an ideal nursery school? The plans are very definite: free child centers in every community where parents, teachers, psychologists, doctors, and welfare workers could pool their present knowledge and methods in providing a unified effort toward better child development, and where the best play and learning facilities could be set up to meet the individual needs of children.

News and Notes

Congress on Child Care The eighth Pan-American Child Congress, at which Dolores Canals represented the Child Study Association of America, was held in Washington from May 2 to 9. The entry of the United States, as well as other American republics, into the world conflict has, of course, changed the plans of the Congress and brought into the program the study of war conditions and its effects upon children. Inter-American collaboration for the protection of childhood in wartime and in the post-war period was specially emphasized at this Congress. The experience of various countries stricken by totalitarian war has demonstrated that it is important not only to protect the child from physical dangers but to preserve his emotional stability in the dislocations of war. It is imperative to maintain the child's basic needs—his health, his family, and sense of security.

After a few decades of intense study and consideration given to childhood, it is especially encouraging and revealing to see how, even with the wide diversity of backgrounds represented at this Congress, there is general agreement on: (1) the recognition of children as a nation's capital of important social value, and the need of special care for them in dangerous times; (2) the recognition of the effects of the political organization of a country upon its families, and consequently upon its children; (3) that democracy fulfills "the need to be an individual among and united with other individuals," and makes it vital for our democratic countries not to deny a single child "the right to be a child." The eighth Pan-American Child Congress adjourned with a new consciousness of our duties toward children, of the responsibilities of free people who care about the world future.

Education in Wartime The new series of loan packets on "Children in Wartime" has just been released by the Information Exchange on Education in Wartime. Some of the other topics on the new list include "Women in Wartime" and "Consumers in Wartime." There are now more than sixty different packets, available for free circulation to teachers, school administrators, civic groups, community agencies, and interested adults, which offer suggestions as to how schools, colleges, and communities can help in the national emergency. The material is

arranged so that it can be readily used for group discussion, programs, and curriculum planning. Any three packets may be borrowed at one time for a period of two weeks, and, as franked labels are included, there is no expense to the borrower.

For a catalogue of information concerning these free loan packets, write to the Information Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Vassar Summer Institute Vassar College's annual Institute will be devoted this year to courses in Family and Child Care Services in Wartime. The Institute will be divided into two three-week sessions, from June 22 to July 11 and from July 13 to August 1, and a six-week session from June 22 to August 1. It is open to men and women with high school education, and at least two years of training in a liberal arts college or a professional school, or the equivalent in special study or in experience in community. An education seminar for teachers and the Progressive Education Association Workshop for the Study of Personality Development will be integral parts of the program.

A children's school for children from two to twelve years of age whose parents or relatives are enrolled in the Institute, will be conducted as part of the Institute program.

In the two courses in child care and protection and family health, registrants may earn as part of the work the Red Cross Food and Nutrition Certificate, the Red Cross Canteen Certificate, or the Federal or New York State Child Care Aide Certificate.

For information about fees and registration, write to Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

American Home Economics Association A working convention to put all state associations of the American Home Economics Association on an all-out wartime footing will be held in Boston at the Hotel Statler from June 21 to 24. This will be the 35th annual meeting of the Association, and will also celebrate the 100th anniversary of the birth of one of its founders, Ellen H. Richards, pioneer home economist, and for years a teacher of chemistry at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Exhibits of com-

mercial firms, of government and professional groups, and of departments, divisions and committees of the Association will be featured.

For further information write to the American Home Economics Association, 620 Mills Building, Washington, D. C.

Institute on World Problems The World Federation of Education Associations will conduct a five weeks Institute on World Problems at the American University, Washington, D. C., from July 12 to August 15, 1942.

Three basic seminars will be held: Backgrounds of the War, Critical Evaluation of the Machinery and Means for International Cooperation, and Post War Problems. Outstanding scholars from Europe, Asia, and the Americas, including a number from the diplomatic corps and from international agencies in Geneva, will participate. In addition, a series of lectures by other world renowned authorities and a number of social events and educational trips are planned.

Information regarding the Institute on World Problems may be obtained from headquarters office of the

World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

School for Executives

An unusual conference, with its purpose "The Education of Teachers for the World of Tomorrow," is to be conducted by the American Association of Teachers Colleges with the cooperation of the Teacher Education Commission of the American Council on Education at Pine Lake Camp, Michigan, from June 15 to June 27, 1942.

The general plan of the conference is to have round table discussion meetings, concentrated during the first week on the problem of "The Educational Program," and concentrated during the second week on various administrative problems involved in carrying "The Educational Program" into operation.

Among the scheduled speakers are David Lilienthal, Tennessee Valley Authority, Mrs. Vera M. Dean, Foreign Policy Association, Dr. Eduard C. Lindeman, New School of Social Research, New York City, Dr. Robert R. Wicks, Dean of Religion, Princeton University, and Professor Daniel Prescott, University of Chicago.

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*Edited by Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg, Director, Child Study Association of America
To be published by Harper and Brothers on June 10, 1942*

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THE HOME FRONT AND THE NATIONAL DEFENSE
CHILDREN OF GREAT BRITAIN IN WARTIME
THE TOLL OF INTOLERANCE UPON THE INTOLERANT
THE IMPACT OF THE DRAFT ON THE AMERICAN FAMILY

Contributors

Paul V. McNutt • Dorothy Canfield Fisher • Pearl Buck • Eleanor Roosevelt • Eduard C. Lindeman • Susan Isaacs • Brig. Gen. Lewis B. Hershey • Sidonie M. Gruenberg • Martha M. Eliot, M.D. • Thomas T. Mackie, M.D. • Anna W. M. Wolf • Caroline Zachry • Davis M. Levy, M.D. • James S. Plant • Mark A. McCloskey • Anna M. Rosenberg • Louise Stanley • Everett R. Clinchy • Lawrence K. Frank • Howard Y. McCluskey

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*Family Life
Education*

Beginning July 6 and continuing through July 11, Alabama College, at Montevallo, Ala., will conduct a conference on Family Life Education.

The conference is to be led by Mrs. Anna W. M. Wolf, senior staff member of the Child Study Association of America.

The proposed areas of work to be considered at the conference are:

Mental Health and Emotional Problems.
Health of the Child.
Child Nutrition.
Music and Art in the Home.
Physical Recreation for the Child.
Speech for Children.
Sex Education.

The conference will meet during each morning and for two hours in the afternoon. Mothers may bring one child, aged two to ten. Special arrangements can be made for the care of more than one child. These children may attend the Nursery School during the hours when the conference is in session.

Some of the other participants in the conference are: Dr. M. L. Orr, Director of Summer School, Mrs. Mary G. Bickler, Martha Allen, Leacy Newell, Ellen-Haven Gould, Ethel Bickham, all of Alabama College; Mrs. Irene S. Brauer, Trenton, N. J.; Anne Holdford, Delmar, N. Y.; Dr. Alton O'Steen, Alabama State Department of Education; Mildred Romansky, Hartford, Conn.; Evelyn Martin, Vernon, Ala.; Mrs. Lea Cowles, Montgomery, Ala., and Dr. Bessie Mae Beach, Division of Child Hygiene for Alabama.

For additional information and registration blank, please write to M. L. Orr, Director, Summer School, Alabama College, Montevallo, Ala.

*Colorado
Summer
Courses*

Mrs. Sidonie Matsner Gruenberg, director of the Child Study Association of America, will give a course at the University of Colorado at Boulder, Colo., for five weeks, beginning June 15. The course will deal with child psychology—the development and interrelationships of the child, both in his social and emotional aspects.

Mrs. Gruenberg will also participate in the seminar sessions of the Elementary School Principals' Conference which are being held in conjunction with the annual meeting of the National Education Association at Denver, Colo., from June 27 to July 2. Her topics will include "Mental Hygiene as Applied to

Classroom, Teacher and Pupil," "Children in Wartime," and "The Family in a World at War."

*Child
Development
Conference*

With the central theme "Children in Wartime," the sixteenth Iowa Conference on Child Development and Parent Education will be held in Iowa City on June 16 and 17.

Mrs. Evelyn Millis Duvall, Executive Director of the Association for Family Living, Chicago, Ill., will speak and conduct a round table on "Marriage and a Happy Life"; Dr. Louis V. Newkirk, Director of Industrial Arts in the Chicago Public Schools, will present the topic "Work for Willing Hands"; Dr. Fritz Redl, Professor of Education at Wayne University, will speak and conduct a round table on "Education Keeps Step"; Dr. Ruth Benedict, Department of Anthropology at Columbia University, will discuss "Surviving Racial Myths" and "The Personal Problems of Young People Everywhere." In recognition of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station, Dr. George D. Stoddard, director of the station, will deliver an address on "The First Quarter Century."

Round table discussions, motion pictures, panel discussions, and forums will supplement the talks.

*Harlem
Parent
Groups*

Under the auspices of the Child Study Association of America a series of meetings was held once a month during the past season for the mothers of two kindergarten groups of Negro children. The groups were run by the New York Kindergarten Association at Harlem River Houses.

The meetings were attended by the mothers, with unusual enthusiasm. Twenty-two came to the first meeting, then the group grew to about forty. At the final session, which was somewhat in the nature of a party, there were fifty-six. The informal discussions, led by Mrs. Aline B. Auerbach, of the staff of Child Study Association, covered both the special problems of the group and the wide range of problems that arise in all families. The greatest interest evidenced was in the problems pertaining to routines of sleeping, eating, discipline, and family relationships in general.

At the suggestion of the mothers, an evening meeting was arranged to give the fathers an opportunity to discuss some of the same material. Twenty-five fathers participated in the discussion of these topics with great interest. The teaching staff of the kindergarten, under the direction of Miss Hazel Bird, contributed to the success of these meetings.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

(Continued from page 104)

10. Demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world.

These students from the Thirty Schools are not "soft." They do not take life easy. They do not dodge responsibilities. They met the conditions which all other students meet in college, and they demonstrated strength, purpose, resourcefulness, self-direction, and loyalty to those ideals to which many of them are now giving "the last full measure of devotion." We can be assured that reconstruction of secondary education in the directions of the Eight-Year Study will lead to the development of the disciplines essential to our way of life. To do this for all youth, parents and teachers everywhere must clarify their thinking about discipline and bring to the task their full powers of creative thought and imagination.

YOUTH AND CITIZENSHIP RESPONSIBILITY

(Continued from page 106)

from various regions, and of various talents. Their living together thus requires the individual to adjust to many egos and to differing temperaments and philosophies and behavior patterns. Out of this sharing and intimacy comes a new sense of the problem of relating one's own purposes and moods to those of human beings, both congenial and uncongenial. And the more heterogeneous the group in the camp, the richer the experience of the young people.

Second, is the work program of physical labor devoted to serving and meeting some real community need. In his application to the camp, each individual commits himself to working at whatever tasks he may be assigned, and the campers together make a commitment which is in the nature of a group contract to undertake and complete their project—it may be a dam or recreation shack or rehabilitation of a children's camp or the laying of a fire lane through a forest. This work must be done by all, and must be completed by a certain date. In the allocation of work under a skilled supervisor, each shares the responsibility according to his strength and skill and experience. For many this is the beginning of discipline in work habits. For the first time many find out what it means to stay at one job for long periods,

regardless of personal preferences and fatigue. Whether or not they ever work in these vocational areas again, the young people who experience the problems involved are never likely to be blind to the meaning of labor and the viewpoint of those who work.

Third, part of each day is given to study. Reading and lectures and trips and many discussions are devoted to the problems of democracy and citizenship. Here material is sifted; news is interpreted; current events are examined in terms of their implications for freedom. In the free give-and-take of the camp the diverse backgrounds come into play. There is clash, and the need for patience and understanding becomes apparent. The ways in which citizens are enabled to find unity deeper than any difference is tested by the very fact that political and economic and international viewpoints are in opposition and to the fore. But all this is within the setting of a community whose common purposes are greater than any particular issue or difference.

Self-government forms the center of the life of the community. Its purpose is the creation of a responsible and happy community. Through the camp meetings all express themselves freely and make the rules by which they are to live, work, study, and play. However, the limits of their freedom are already determined in part by the fact that they have committed themselves to the completion of the work project. They may work out the schedules and details with the staff, but they cannot change the basic obligation. Also, since the director is responsible for their lives while they swim, they have no illusions that they can decide to swim at any time without a suitable guard. They cannot, in the name of democracy, vote to shift eating arrangements, regardless of the will of the cooks, for example. Drought and fire hazard impose their special restrictions. So also do the traditions and conventions of the community immediately around the camp. But within these limits which present the problems of democracy in a living situation, the campers have the experience of real democracy, of taking responsibility for their freedom and disciplining themselves. The future citizens of democracy learn the meaning of the town meeting, and begin to thrash out the problems of true democratic participation and discipline for our present world.

Thus work camps afford a rich experience in the kind of group living and working and thinking and governing which means democratic discipline at its best. Here are organized projects set up as citizenship training centers. But they, in common with the

schools and universities, the great social agencies and religious centers, must take special responsibility for involving young people in those educational experiences through which youth will come to a new understanding of its own long-range purposes. With a clear sense of fundamental values, or "first things," youth will have the direction which will give meaning and point to life. With such deeper spiritual purposes as the creation of a better civilization, a sense of the responsibility for fulfilling the promise of the great democratic heritage, youth will be free because disciplined by great purposes.

DELINQUENCY AND THE WAR

(Continued from page 110)

(a) Until youths attain military age, or until their contributions to the economic security of their families are necessary, they should be encouraged to remain in school beyond compulsory school age, so that they may be occupied in academic or vocational education. Indeed, for the older adolescent, such pursuits might be made compulsory on a part-time basis.

(b) Increased supervised recreational facilities should be provided by local communities for the leisure time of young children and of adolescents.

(c) The energies of youth should be harnessed to important objectives connected with the war effort, so as to impart to them the feeling of *belonging*, of being needed. Recognition of a responsibility is an inseparable companion to morale; and paper collecting, scrap-iron salvage, food conservation, farming, civilian defense, etc., are among the constructive activities that help indoctrinate young people with patriotic principles diametrically opposed to the adventurous and mischievous lures of delinquency.

(d) More child and family guidance clinics should be established for the diagnosis and adjustment of pre-delinquents and delinquents, and to render the necessary educational services to parents and teachers of children who present behavior and personality problems.

To these fragments of a comprehensive program for prevention of the *first* serious offense should be added at least two more for prevention of the *second*:

(a) Absorption of youths into industry, despite reformatory or prison experience. Prepared by systematic and efficient vocational education that ought to be provided in penal and correctional institutions, the traditional shibboleth that cautions against hiring

"ex-cons" would dissolve upon discovery that a large percentage of these young men, like others not embarrassed by the stigma of a criminal record, can develop into contributive and inspired workers, anxious and able to refrain from repeated offenses.

(b) Opportunity for able-bodied ex-prisoners (and for those now serving sentences) to enlist in the Army and Navy. It is known that many of these young men have a strong patriotic fervor; and recognition of that fact, plus the indisputable *right* they have to take up arms against a common foe, would assist materially in reducing the desire and opportunity for resumption of their criminal careers. The singular prejudice against their service in the armed forces has led to the curious anomaly that only the untainted, the "flower of our youth," may be trained to kill.

It remains to be seen just how much of the inexorable tide of mounting wartime delinquency and crime among youths will be tolerated by communities before some of these and other suggested reforms are translated into actuality.

YOUTH TAKES ITS PART

(Continued from page 120)

time each group is meeting this situation as best it can, getting acquainted with each individual whenever possible, and helping him meet the problem realistically. Youth is ready and eager for responsibility, and often can assume more than adults think. The important thing is for the young people to feel that they are a vital part of the project they choose.

Even with all these opportunities for constructive activity, there will still be thousands of boys and girls, particularly in the large cities, whose needs will not be met and who will be on the streets this summer. Handicaps of race, color, and foreign citizenship present special problems in some communities. For underprivileged groups there is a particularly urgent problem of finding leadership. In facing the needs of young people today there is a stirring challenge to provide opportunities, not for a few but for all groups. This is not an emergency problem merely of the next few months. The challenge is to meet these needs with an eye to the future, to help boys and girls to find themselves in their work as individuals and as responsible citizens, developing attitudes toward themselves and their companions that will contribute not only to the efforts of the war but also to the permanent structure of peace.

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